

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
National Technical Information Service**

PB-257 591

Study Book for the Training Course Safety & Pesticide Usage

Environmental Protection Agency

1971

Study Book

For the Training Course:



and PESTICIDE USAGE

1971

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
PESTICIDES PROGRAMS
Division of Pesticide Community Studies
4770 Buford Highway
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NATIONAL TECHNICAL
INFORMATION SERVICE
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
SPRINGFIELD, VA. 22161

BIBLIOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET	1. Report No.	2.	3. Recipient's Accession No. PB-257 591
4. Title and Subtitle Study Book for the Training Course: Safety and Pesticide Usage			5. Report Date 1971
7. Author(s)			6.
9. Performing Organization Name and Address Environmental Protection Agency Chamblee, Ga. Office of Pesticides Programs			8. Performing Organization Rept. No.
			10. Project/Task/Work Unit No.
			11. Contract/Grant No.
12. Sponsoring Organization Name and Address			13. Type of Report & Period Covered
			14.
15. Supplementary Notes			
16. Abstracts Contents: Putting pesticides and pollution in perspective; Toxicology of pesticides; Hazards to and protection of individuals who mix and apply pesticides; Selection of the proper pesticide; The mathematics of mixing and applying agricultural chemicals; Hazards associated with different methods of application; Safe use of pesticides on the farm; Pesticides and institutional environments; Safe use of Pesticides in vector control; Safe use of pesticides in structural pest control; Diagnosis and treatment in pesticide intoxication; Evaluation of application from various viewpoints; Household use of pesticides; Disposal of waste pesticides 'Problems and Suggested Solutions'; Industrial hygiene practice in the manufacture, formulation and packaging of pesticides; Herbicides - what we know, what we need to know and where we are going; Minimizing fish and wildlife losses from pesticides; Future trends in chemical and nonchemical methods of pest control; Why some chemicals fail to control; Federal legislation - its impact on pesticides safety; Pesticide poisoning - A medical examiner's view; Safety in transport and storage of pesticides; Calibration of equipment.			
17a. Descriptors			
*Pesticides, *Safety, Toxicology, Hazards, Mixing, Spraying, Mathematical analysis, Selection, Farms. Pest control, Wildlife, Fishes, Diagnosis, Intoxication, Packaging, Herbicides, Trends, Legislation, Storage, Calibrating.			
17b. Identifiers/Open-Ended Terms			
17c. COSATI Field/Group 6 F 6 T 2 C 5 I			
18. Availability Statement National Technical Information Service Springfield, Virginia 22161		19. Security Class (This Report) UNCLASSIFIED	21. No. of Pages 114p
		20. Security Class (This Page) UNCLASSIFIED	22. Price 5.50/2.25

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FOREWORD

This studybook is made available to students enrolled in the "Safety and Pesticide Usage" course to serve as a training aid and guide. We hope you will find the material presented here useful in your everyday work. Continued requests for more in-depth information about pesticides, both for general knowledge and for use in specific areas, prompted us to develop this course to touch on specific areas of interest and practical application of previously presented theory.

Although, for the most part, the studybook contains papers prepared especially for this course, it should not be considered a citable source. Any original research data contained in these papers will be published by the authors in another form in referenced scientific journals. Should you be unable to locate the appropriate citable reference for these data in the future, we ask that you contact the author directly.

We take this opportunity to express our appreciation to the authors for their participation in this training course and to wish you the students rapid progress toward our common goal of adequate protection of human health and the environment.

Anne R. Yobs -

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PUTTING PESTICIDES AND POLLUTION IN PERSPECTIVE

Anne R. Yobs, M.D.

The uses of chemical substances become more numerous each day, leading to the formulation of new substances and the development of new commercial applications.

Man's physical environment is now exposed to a myriad of substances which are potentially toxic to man himself or to constituents of his environment. Such substances are found in nearly everything that man uses. In trace amounts in the human body, some substances may be essential to life or have no demonstrable effect, but in larger amounts, these same substances may be toxic. It has been estimated that some 2 million chemical compounds are now known and that several thousand new chemicals are discovered each year. Most new compounds remain laboratory curiosities which are never produced commercially; however, several hundred new chemicals do enter commercial markets annually. The metals, metallic compounds and synthetic organic compounds -- among these pesticides -- cause particular concern because of their rapidly increasing number and use.

United States consumption of metals with known toxic effects has increased greatly in the last 20 years. Use data tend to underestimate their increasing pervasiveness in our environment due to the many new metallic compounds being formulated and used in ever-widening varieties of new products. The use of synthetic organic chemicals is growing in a similar manner. More than 9,000 synthetic compounds are now in commercial use in amounts exceeding 1,000 pounds a year. In 1968, synthetics totaled nearly 120 billion pounds -- 60 million tons. This represented a 15 percent increase over 1967 and a 161% increase over the 10 years since 1961.¹

Admittedly many of these substances are not toxic, but their sheer numbers, increasing diversity and use and the environmental problems already encountered from some indicate the existence of a problem of potential significance. These substances enter man's environment--and man himself--through complex and interrelated pathways. Present in air, water, soil, consumer products and food, they pervade our environment. Some become concentrated through the food chain--with minute quantities being magnified thousands of times as they are consumed by higher forms of life. Increasingly, all forms of life are being exposed to potentially toxic chemical materials.

The environmental effects of most of these substances are not well understood. Testing has largely been confined to determining their acute effects and knowledge of the chronic or long-term effects, such as genetic mutation, is inadequate. Available data, while still incomplete, indicates potential or actual hazard from a number of these substances.

Many serious effects, including such things as cancer production (carcinogenicity), genetic mutation (mutagenicity) which is the production of permanent changes in genes and is transmissible from parent to child, as well as the production of physical or biochemical defects in an offspring (teratogenicity) can occur as a result of exposure to certain of these compounds. In general, we do not know which substances cause such effects or the level(s) of a given chemical which must be reached before the effect(s) occurs. The problem is complicated by the changes which chemicals may undergo once they enter the environment becoming more or less toxic through modification or as a result of interaction with other substances.

Existing Federal controls over the introduction of toxic substances into the environment are of two types. The first is control over initial production of a substance and its distribution. For example, under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA), a manufacturer must register a pesticide with the Environmental Protection Agency before it can be introduced in interstate commerce. EPA can prohibit distribution of a pesticide or require labeling of acceptable uses. This type of control, exercised at the point of manufacture, is also applied to drugs and food additives by FDA. Although this control technique can be very effective, current authorities cover only a small part of the total number of potentially toxic substances and do not deal with all of the uses of a substance which may produce toxic effects. The second type of control is media-oriented, that is directed at air and water pollution from various sources. Federal authority derives primarily from the Clean Air Act and the Federal Water Pollution Control Act. Under the latter, the Federal Government, in cooperation with the states, sets standards for the amounts of particular substances allowable in water. Under the Clean Air Act, the Federal Government sets national air quality standards, allowing the states to set more stringent standards. Enforcement of standards depends on limiting the emission of a substance from a given source.

In theory, this type of authority can be used to control all substances, but there are several limitations to the effective application of such controls. These media-based authorities are mainly concerned with pollutants which occur in large quantities. It is difficult to control minute amounts of toxic materials with this type authority partly because of the difficulty in detecting their presence in air or water and partly because many substances enter the environment through disposal of consumer products. If a product is disposed of through the municipal sewer line or by burning at an incinerator, it is almost impossible for the media-oriented controls to deal effectively with minute amounts of decomposition products. To do so requires their effective removal by the municipal waste treatment plant or incinerator stack scrubbers.

Most toxic substances are not exclusively air and water pollutants, but can be found in varying quantities in air, water, soil, food and industrial and consumer products. The multiplicity of ways by which man can be exposed to these substances makes it difficult for the media-oriented authorities to consider the total exposure of an individual to a given

substance, a consideration necessary for the establishment of adequate standards.

Since the worst aspects of pesticides are usually the ones which make the most news, it sometimes seems that pesticides are credited with more than their share of the overall pollution problem. Pesticides properly used are tools, however when they move off target or are misused, they become pollutants. Pesticides might not be much of a problem if they stayed where applied, but in fact they do not remain where applied and do remain in the environment for relatively long periods of time as shown by the widespread distribution of DDT and some other chlorinated hydrocarbons.

Pesticides are deliberately introduced into the environment in order to improve the quality of the environment for man himself and for his domesticated animals and plants. These chemicals are used in agriculture to improve the farmer's cost/benefit ratio and for the ultimate benefit of the consumer. The technology of the use of modern pesticides is one important component of the agricultural revolution of the last 100 years, other components include farm mechanization and the development of chemical fertilizers. This revolution has made it possible for the United States farmer to increase his production from an amount sufficient to support 4 people in 1850 to that sufficient for an estimated 46 people today. In our present system of monoculture, farm mechanization, and complex systems of food harvesting, processing, distribution and storage, the use of pesticides often means the difference between crop production and crop failure and between economic profit and loss. In developing countries where food supplies are marginal, pesticide use may represent the margin between survival and starvation.

Food losses attributable to all forms of pests, including pathogens, weeds and arthropods, are very difficult to estimate, and to some extent the estimates are subjective in nature--it is not easy to say with certainty what the yield of a crop might have been in some hypothetical, disease-free circumstance.

The losses which can be attributed to pests are of several kinds. Sometimes, losses occur as a result of direct reduction of growth with concomitant reduction of yield; such reduction results both from competition of weeds and from damage caused by insects and pathogens. Frequently, a loss of quality is also evident; deformed, discoloured or small-sized produce often carries small market value. A third type of loss relates to costs incurred by the farmer in attempts to reduce damage caused by pests; in addition to the cost of chemicals and their application, there may be costs arising from additional cultivations or from the need to purchase more expensive, resistant varieties of crop seed. Furthermore, resistant varieties are sometimes less productive than susceptible ones, and indirect costs are incurred this way, as they may be when the farmer resorts to crop rotation for the purpose of crop hygiene.

As has been mentioned, it is difficult to quantify losses although figures of the order of 10 to 20% loss of useful crop are frequently quoted both in the United States of America and in Britain.²

Problems of environmental quality inevitably result from conflicts of interest, and the use of pesticides has been attacked by conservationists and ecologists as a focal point of concern for the preservation of environmental quality. Considerations in the "pesticide controversy" include a variety of technological, economic and sociological points. These include overzealous application of new products and techniques, farm labor shortages, lack of appreciation of the ecological complexities of crop production, failure to develop pest-management strategies and newer selective and biodegradable pesticides and the supermarket approach of many consumers today.³

There are now some 300 different chemical compounds which are used as commercial pesticides variously on crops, harvested produce, processed and stored foods, soil, water, structures and habitations. They serve to minimize and control the attacks of pests and resultant damage. Pesticides may be categorized according to the type of pest controlled - insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, nematocides, molluscicides, rodenticides and acaricides. Numbers of pest species in the United States have been estimated as follows:⁴

bacteria	250 species
fungi	8000 species
viruses	250 species
weeds	500 species
nematodes	500 species
molluscs	50 species
insects	10,000 species
rodents	200 species
birds	10 species

The annual loss in the United States from pests in crops, forests, livestock and other agricultural products has been estimated at \$14.3 billion with additional losses of \$2.3 billion during storage and marketing.⁵ Worldwide, crop production losses are estimated to be 14% due to plant diseases, 2% insects, and 9% weeds, for a total loss of \$70-90 billions.⁶ It has been estimated that enough food is lost to feed 1 billion people. Modern pesticides have accounted for astonishing gains in agricultural production by reducing the damage from pest attack. The average potato yield in New York State from 1936-45 with good growing practices and arsenical insecticides was 110 bushels per acre - in 1946-47 with DDT used exclusively, the yield was 172 bushels per acre - up 56%. The use of systemic insecticides to control insect vectors of plant virus diseases increased wheat yields in the California Imperial Valley by 10%. The use of phenoxy acid herbicides in small grains to control weeds has been stated to increase grain yields over a 15 year period by more than 800 million bushels.⁷

"Pesticide Technology has made it possible to increase the efficiency of farm operations and has led the way to greater productivity through mechanization of all phases of crop production from planting to harvesting and storing. ...

"Ecologically, the use of pesticides is an almost inevitable consequence of the development of modern high production agriculture. The pure monocultures of corn, wheat, cotton or rice, often extending for thousands of contiguous acres, represent the highest sort of ecosystem specialization. Compare if you will, a midwestern cornfield with its original predecessor, the tall grass prairie. The cornfield ideally contains only a single plant species without any competitors-bacterial, fungal, weed, nematode, insect, bird or rodent pests; while the prairie consisted of perhaps 100 plant species and thousands of associated animals. Through the development of the cornfield, man has aimed to maximize the harvestable energy of the ecosystem, and this has been achieved at the cost of ecosystem stability. The extent of the instability of the hybrid cornfield has been dramatically revealed in the calamitous attack of southern corn leafblight.

"Modern agri-ecosystems require large inputs of energy to maintain them in a stable state. Pesticides, fertilizers, gasoline for tractors and electric power for irrigation represent the major energy inputs required for ecosystem stability. Energy applied as pesticides is cheaper and far more efficient than the man with the hoe or fly swatter."

In the drive toward increased agricultural productivity man has paid little attention to the broader aspects of the agri-ecosystem and to the sound principles of crop rotation developed during the past 100 years. These had very beneficial effects in the control of many agricultural pests, both plant and animal. Unfortunately, in many areas most of them have been all but abandoned today. Newer technologies such as the "no-till" concept depart still further from sound eco-system strategies for agricultural pest management. However much these increase crop production, a corresponding price will be paid in need for more pesticides.

The new hybrid varieties of crops which have brought about the "green revolution" have also complicated the problems of the agri-ecosystem. These have been bred largely for high production characteristics and may exhibit markedly different susceptibilities to various types of pests. Moreover, their high production characteristics are effective only under very high levels of fertilization with nitrogen and phosphorus and often with greatly increased reliance on pesticides.

The agri-ecosystem does not exist in a vacuum, and the future trends and developments in agriculture must be weighed in terms of the total quality of the environment.

The value of pesticides to the agricultural industry may also be considered from the extent to which they are employed. By this measure these materials have been outstandingly successful. Table 1 shows U. S. sales of pesticides for the 8-year period 1962-1969.

Table 1. Pesticide Use in the United States^{a/}
Sales in Millions of Pounds

Year	Fungicides	Herbicides	Insecticides	Total
1962	97	95	442	634
1963	93	123	435	651
1964	95	152	445	692
1965	106	184	473	762
1966	118	221	502	841
1967	120	288	489	897
1968	124	318	498	940
1969	127	348	502	983

a/ U. S. Tariff Commission.

Total pesticide use has increased an average of more than 7 percent per year. For herbicides the increase is substantially higher, their use more than doubling over a 4-year period. In terms of crop applications the U. S. Department of Agriculture estimated in 1966 that herbicides were applied to 27 percent of the 350 million crop acres, insecticides to 12 percent, and fungicides to 2.6 percent.

The role of these chemicals in pest control and in crop production has been intensively studied, and their use has become virtually indispensable to modern agriculture but for the majority of the individual pesticide chemicals there is only a superficial knowledge of the effects of their long-term use on the quality of the environment. On a national level we have developed an impressive array of knowledge relating to pesticide contamination of crops, foods, soils, animals, and even humans. However, in relation to the immensity of the total pollution problem, these efforts leave many end points unresolved. Special attention needs to be given to the rates of accumulation of pesticides and their breakdown products in soils and to the extent of contamination of water resources; to the interrelations between various combinations of pesticides and the soil microflora; to the effects of all new compounds on food chains and food-chain organisms, especially including wildlife; and to the effects of possible mutagenic and teratogenic compounds and their breakdown products upon man.^{b/}

The persistence of many pesticides has made possible the development of new agricultural techniques such as preemergent herbicides, soil insecticides, and seed treatments and have caused many of the environmental problems facing the nation today. The values shown in Table 2 give an indication of the relative persistence in soils of various types of pesticides.

Table 2. Persistence of Pesticides in Soils^{a/}

	Approximate half-life, years
Lead, arsenic, copper, mercury	10-30
Dieldrin, BHC, DDT insecticides	2-4
Triazine herbicides	1-2
Benzoic acid herbicides	.2-1
Urea herbicides	.3-.8
2,4-D; 2,4,5-T herbicides	.1-.4
Organophosphorus insecticides	.02-.2
Carbamate insecticides	.02-.1

^{a/} Metcalf and Pitts (13).

Difficulties have been encountered with residues of heavy-metal pesticides containing lead and arsenic, which were used extensively for 20 to 30 years in apple orchards and tobacco farms. Compounds of these elements are intrinsically deleterious to life when solubilized sufficiently to enter living systems. More than 3,500 pounds of lead arsenate was applied to a commercial orchard in Washington over a 25-year period and was found to accumulate in soil at levels which were seriously injurious to cover crops. Tobacco soils in North Carolina have accumulated arsenic up to 5 ppm. Many years are required for the levels of lead and arsenic in such soils to return to normal values. The persistent herbicides sometimes show disconcerting tendencies to render soils sterile to plant growth long after their usefulness was expended. This is particularly true where use patterns are abruptly changed.

Pesticides will be used for the foreseeable future. This is the collective judgment of the Jensen Committee on Persistent Pesticides, National Academy of Sciences^{8/}, which stated "For most purposes, nonchemical methods of control are not expected to supplant the use of chemicals in the foreseeable future"; and of the Mark Commission of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare^{9/}, which said, "Our need to use pesticides and other pest control chemicals will continue to increase for the foreseeable future." This does not, however, give license to utilize pesticides on an infinitely increasing scope or to use them irresponsibly with regard to the quality of the environment. Changes must be made in pest-control practices and in some cases in the nature of pesticide chemicals themselves if the agricultural industry is to maintain public confidence in its practices and to observe an appropriate and responsible regard for public health and environmental quality.

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TOXICOLOGY OF PESTICIDES

Thomas B. Gaines

Toxicology may be defined as a science that deals with the action of poisonous materials on living cells and tissues, the response of the living structures, and the detection, identification, and evaluation of safety of these poisonous materials. Of course, many chemical compounds are quite beneficial for use in man at certain levels. On the other hand, these same materials can be quite harmful if used without regard for their potential toxicity. Drug therapy in man must be practiced with care to prevent the development of toxic manifestations. Even table salt, a common part of our diet, is as toxic in a single oral dose as some of our pesticides. Although pesticides may be quite hazardous to man, at least one of them, the organic phosphorus Dipterex, has been used experimentally for control of intestinal parasites in man.¹ This and some other organic phosphorus compounds are used for control of intestinal parasites of livestock.

Factors Influencing Toxicity

The toxicity of pesticides in mammals is influenced by compound, dosage level, schedule of dosage, duration of dosage, route of exposure, species and strain differences, sex, age, interaction of compounds, nutrition, disease, and temperature and other environmental factors. Among 100 pesticides tested for their acute oral toxicity in male rats the organophosphorus Abate was the least toxic with an LD_{50} of 8600 mg/kg and the carbamate Temik the most toxic with an LD_{50} of 0.8 mg/kg.² The toxicity of any one pesticide in mammals corresponds to the dosage level in accordance with the dosage-response concept. This implies that there is a dosage level great enough to kill all of the poisoned organisms and, at the other end of the scale, a dose small enough to be a "no effect" level. It should be emphasized that a "no effect" level may actually represent our inability to detect an effect. It is doubtful that there is any level of a foreign substance that fails to exert some effect when introduced into a living organism.

A schedule of dosage that involves continuous exposure to a pesticide is generally more hazardous than intermittent exposure at the same level. The degree of difference depends to a great extent on the rate at which the organism is able to excrete the poison or convert it to

a non-toxic substance. The single dose oral LD_{50} for carbofuran in rats is about 8.0 mg/kg. However, if the compound is fed in the diet so that the total dose is consumed each day over a period of several hours, the rats will survive 40 mg/kg/day for 90 days. Thus intermittent exposure will prolong the time required for a toxic effect to develop even for those compounds known to be cumulative in their effect. The development of some manifestations of toxicity are dependent on duration of dosage. This is the reasoning behind the requirement for 90-day and 2-year exposure studies in animals. Effect of long-term exposure is especially important in consideration of carcinogenicity (development of malignant tumors) of pesticides.

The three most common routes of exposure to pesticides are oral, dermal, and inhalation. The oral route is the dominant route of exposure from pesticide residues in food. Formulators and applicators of pesticides are subject to considerable exposure by dermal absorption and inhalation. In laboratory tests with pesticides in rats most compounds tested were more toxic by the oral route than by the dermal route. Only five of 90 pesticides tested by both routes were more toxic by the dermal route. Three of these were organophosphorus compounds; one was a carbamate; and the other was a sulfite compound.²

The question of species difference in susceptibility of animals to pesticides is, of course, of only academic interest to those concerned with human health, but it may vary by a factor of 10 or more for some compounds in mammalian species.

Pesticides in a single oral dose are usually more toxic to female than male rats. Although toxicity is influenced by sex, this may vary for different animal species. Compounds also vary as to their toxicity in different age animals. In 1965, Lu and his co-workers³ reported that in rats given a single oral dose malathion was more toxic in newborn rats than in adults. DDT and dieldrin in a single dose were more toxic to adults than to newborn rats. In acute oral toxicity studies conducted by the author the herbicides atrazine, simazine, and paraquat were more toxic to adults than to weanling rats. On the other hand, the synergist sulfoxide and the insecticide famphur were more toxic in weanling rats than in adults.

The interaction of pesticides may be of practical as well as theoretical significance. Two compounds may (1) be simply additive (2) antagonistic or (3) potentiate one another. The effect is usually additive. Antagonism between two compounds has been demonstrated between some chlorinated hydrocarbon and organophosphorus pesticides and between some chlorinated hydrocarbons and drugs.^{4,5} This antagonism is associated with liver microsomal enzyme induction. When the combined effect of two compounds is greater than additive they are said to potentiate each other. EPN and malathion have been shown to produce a 50-fold

potentiation in oral toxicity of these two compounds in dogs.⁶ Dioxathion and trichlorfon will also do this with malathion. Potentiation between compounds has to be considered in establishing food tolerances and labeling restrictions for pesticides.

Measurement of Toxicity

In evaluating the toxicity of pesticides in man it is, of course, important to have as much data as possible from studies in humans. However, since it is practical to do only limited studies in man with pesticides, most toxicological information must be obtained from investigations in laboratory animals. In establishing dose-response relationships, types of toxicity tests include determination of the 1-dose LD₅₀ (acute), 90-day exposure (subacute), and chronic exposure. The LD₅₀ is a statistically calculated value which represents the best estimation of the dose required to produce death in 50 percent of the test animals. It is, therefore, always accompanied by some means of estimation of the error of the value, such as the probability range of the value.⁷ If the LD₅₀ for compound B is greater than that of compound A, compound B may be said to be less potent than compound A. The slope of the dose response curve is most significant when comparing two or more compounds. The LD₅₀ for compound A may be greater than for B and the LD₅₀ for compound B be greater than that for compound A. Each LD₅₀ determination usually involves about four or more dosage levels of the test material selected at a certain geometric or logarithmic interval with each dosage level being given to several animals. The most commonly used methods for calculating LD₅₀ values are those of Litchfield and Wilcoxon⁸, Miller and Tainter, and Weil.¹⁰ The author uses the method of Litchfield and Wilcoxon⁸ which employs the use of logarithmic probit graph paper with the dosage levels in logarithms plotted against percent mortality in probits. A straight line is fitted to the plotted data so that the LD₁ or LD₁₀, etc., as well as the LD₅₀ value can be read from the line. The ED₅₀ (effective dose for 50 percent of test animals), EC₅₀ (effective concentration in air or water for 50 percent of the test animals) and the LC₅₀ (lethal concentration for 50 percent of the test animals) can be calculated in the same way as the LD₅₀. The ET₅₀ or LT₅₀ (the time required to produce an effect or death in 50 percent of the test animals) can be calculated according to the method of Litchfield.¹¹

Ninety-day studies may involve daily dosing, or in the case of oral exposure the pesticide may be fed as a component of the diet. Hayes¹² described the application of a 90-day feeding study with an acute oral toxicity study to arrive at a chronicity factor for a compound. The factor is calculated by dividing the 1-dose oral LD₅₀ in mg/kg by the 90-dose LD₅₀ value in mg/kg/day. The chronicity factor is useful for comparing the cumulative toxicity of various pesticides in labora-

tory animals. Of the pesticides evaluated in this way some of the chlorinated hydrocarbons show the greatest degree of cumulative toxicity. The organophosphorus pesticides show little cumulative toxicity and some of the carbamate insecticides have chronicity factors of less than one. Ninety-day studies are also useful for evaluating the effect of continuous pesticide exposure upon growth, symptomatology, hematology, and pathology in laboratory animals.

Chronic exposure studies (usually up to two years in rats and longer in animals with longer life spans) are used to evaluate the effect of long-term exposure to pesticides such as the possible development of carcinogenesis. There are also special tests for evaluating the sensitization, eye irritation, neurotoxic, teratogenic (including effect on reproduction) and mutagenic effects of pesticides in animals.

Selective Toxicity

Albert¹³ defines selective toxicity as the injury of one kind of living matter without harming some other kind with which the first is in intimate contact. The living matter to be injured may be referred to as the uneconomic species, and the matter which is to be unaltered as the economic species. This characteristic of certain compounds is significant in the field of chemotherapy in man in that it allows the elimination of certain organisms without injury to the host. Selective toxicity of pesticides makes it possible to use many of them effectively without injury to man. Diazinon, an effective pesticide against roaches, has an LD₅₀ of only 2 mg/kg for roaches compared with 40 mg/kg for mice.¹⁴ The LD₅₀ for malathion in mice is 815 mg/kg but only 30 mg/kg in house flies.¹⁴

Pesticides may be more toxic to insects than mammals because of species differences in rate of absorption, metabolism, or excretion. Mammals generally have a much better enzyme system for degrading pesticides than do insects. This may be illustrated by studying malathion, a relatively inactive compound. It is rapidly oxidized to the active malaoxon in both insects and mammals. However, the toxic malaoxon is hydrolyzed slowly in the insect and rapidly in the mammal to non-toxic products. The hydrolysis and binding of malathion itself is slow in insects but rapid in mammals.⁷

Factors Affecting Absorption

Some of the factors affecting the absorption of poisons by the oral route are the type of solvent used for the compound, the dilution of the dose, and the fasting state of the animal. Some solvents are more readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract than are others. Ferguson¹⁵ reported that the death rates from 12 different drugs given orally to mice and rats were higher the greater the dilution of the dose in water. The absorption rate of a compound is generally considered to be greater in a fasted than in a non-fasted animal.

Dermal absorption is influenced by compound, type of solvent or physical state of the material, size of area of application, and condition of the treated skin. O'Brien and Dannelley¹⁶ studied the rate of penetration through rat skin of DDT, famphur, carbaryl, malathion, and dieldrin and found that the penetration rates of the compounds increased in the order given. The vehicle in which the compounds were given also influenced the penetration rate which increased in the order corn oil, benzene, acetone. Fredriksson¹⁷ demonstrated in guinea pigs dosed dermally with sarin that the time from dosing to respiratory arrest in the animals decreased as the area of application of the poison was increased. The dermal toxicity of parathion in rats was significantly increased when the skin was abraded by stripping with cellophane tape to remove the stratum corneum just prior to dosing.¹⁸

The respiratory toxicity of a compound is affected by the physical state of the material. The efficiency of respiratory absorption of compounds increases in the order of sprays, dusts, and gases. Particle size is of great importance. Particles in excess of 20 μ in diameter are seldom inhaled. The upper respiratory tract tends to capture particles between 5 and 10 μ size. The alveoli are most efficient in capturing particles of 0.1 to 3 μ in size.

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HAZARDS TO AND PROTECTION OF INDIVIDUALS WHO MIX OR APPLY PESTICIDES

Homer R. Wolfe

Man is often subjected to relatively high levels of pesticide compounds when he is actively engaged in pest control operations or working directly with the compounds in formulating plants. Experience has shown that if proper precautionary measures and directions are followed, even the more toxic compounds can be handled safely. Although illnesses and even deaths from pesticides occur each year in the United States, it should be pointed out that most of these cases are caused by carelessness or by accident.

The more extensively used modern synthetic insecticides are the organophosphorus, chlorinated hydrocarbon, and carbamate compounds. Generally, the acute toxicity of the organophosphorus group is somewhat greater than that of the chlorinated hydrocarbon or the carbamate compounds. However, the chlorinated hydrocarbon compounds, due to their greater stability, present more of a residue problem. The estimation of hazard to workers who come in contact with pesticides is based primarily on the observed acute dermal, and to a less extent oral, toxicity of these compounds to experimental animals. Where it is available, use experience is considered. The estimated relative acute toxic hazard to spraymen for a number of pesticides can be seen in the table. The classification into toxicity groups is both approximate and relative. It should be noted that these toxicity categories are not related to specific categories spelled out for label requirements.

Much of the safety in relation to pesticides rests on the user or applicator of the compounds. If he is knowledgeable concerning pesticides and understands the importance of taking proper precautions, he can do much to insure the safety of himself and others. This also applies to workers involved in the manufacture and formulation of toxic compounds. Their contact is usually with the more concentrated forms of pesticides; therefore, they should be especially aware of the need for protecting themselves from exposure. Thus, an important adjunct to safety in relation to pesticides is education, not only of supervisory personnel but also of those individuals who actually handle the materials.

There are several very important indirect ways of protecting the worker such as providing education and medical supervision, stressing the

importance of personal hygiene and cleanliness, the importance of not being careless, and pointing out the need for reading and following directions on the pesticide label. However, these topics will be covered by other presentations on this program. The main purpose of this presentation is to discuss the more direct protection of the various routes of entry of pesticide into the body. Protection of these routes means prevention of exposure and prevention of exposure is undoubtedly the best insurance against poisoning.

ROUTES OF ENTRY

There are four routes of entry of pesticide compounds into the body: (1) dermal, (2) respiratory, (3) oral, and (4) through cuts or abrasions in the skin.

DERMAL ROUTE

The dermal route is considered to be the most important route of entry into the body during most exposure situations in the field and probably plays an important part in exposure of workers in formulating plants. This route is one that has undoubtedly been responsible for a great many poisonings of workers, especially from the more toxic organophosphorus compounds.

In research studies we have measured the potential exposure of several hundred pesticide applicators, and the results indicate that over 97% of the pesticide to which the body is subjected during most exposure situations, and especially to applicators of liquid sprays, is deposited on the skin. It should be understood that any given amount of pesticide is more rapidly and more completely absorbed by the oral or respiratory routes. However, absorption of pesticides by these two routes is probably too small a fraction of the total potential exposure to be considered the main factor in most poisoning cases of workers in the field.

The importance of protecting specific body areas has not been clearly defined in the past. This is because the rate of absorption of different compounds through human skin is difficult to measure with any degree of accuracy. The most useful and probably most accurate estimations or measurements on the percutaneous penetration of pesticides in man which have been accomplished thus far have been made by Maibach and Feldman.¹ Using radioactive labeled pesticides they were able to determine approximately what fraction of an applied dose would be absorbed through the skin. In this way they not only compared the degree of dermal absorption for certain pesticides but also compared absorption of a single pesticide for different parts of the human body. The results obtained indicate that sufficient importance may not have been attached to protection of certain body areas. In checking dermal penetration of parathion at different body areas these researchers found that the area of greatest absorption on man is the scrotum where approximately 100% of an applied dose was absorbed. The possibility of pesticide on this body area being

completely absorbed is a very important point and emphasizes the need for increased concern about protection of the area. Of utmost importance would be the need for extreme caution in order to avoid spillage of highly toxic liquid pesticide onto the scrotum.

Although cloth coveralls or trousers provide a reasonable amount of protection where contamination does not easily penetrate clothing, the wearing of waterproof trousers provides the best protection for the lower trunk and leg areas and is especially recommended in work situations where there is a chance of liquid spillage, soaking by continued contact with more dilute liquid sprays, or penetration of clothing through excessive contact with dry pesticides. In formulating plants where the main outer protective garment is usually cotton coveralls, workers should be required to wear waterproof aprons, especially if they are on duty at bagging or mixing stations where there is often considerable contamination down the front of the clothing with relatively concentrated wettable powder formulations. Fortunately, many plants require the use of aprons. Even when the waterproof apron is used it is very important that the worker change to freshly laundered clothing each day in order to prevent contamination of the scrotum or other skin areas. Needless to say, use of clean clothing and daily bathing in an effort to avoid excess dermal absorption are essential in any type of exposure situation.

Protection of the upper trunk and arms from contamination by toxic pesticides is important, especially under conditions where heavy spray drift may thoroughly wet cloth shirts, coveralls, and underclothing or where concentrated dry pesticides come in contact with clothing and skin in formulating plants. Our studies have shown that the greatest potential contamination of spraymen in this general body area is the upper back, shoulders, and forearms of workers operating equipment which propels spray up into the air where it is more subject to drift. Under these conditions a waterproof jacket or raincoat provides the best protection for this general body area. This gear is usually worn during cooler conditions, but as the temperature rises and the clothing becomes unbearably hot to wear, workers tend to discard them and work with much less protection--perhaps only a short-sleeved T-shirt-type undershirt on the upper trunk area. Under such conditions workers should be encouraged to at least wear a long-sleeved cloth jacket that will not be easily penetrated by pesticide, and preferably one that can be properly washed.

The wearing of long-sleeved heavy grade "GI" cotton shirts or coveralls as outer clothing during hot weather, often with no underclothing, is popular with many applicators even though this is not a recommended practice. Fortunately, these items of outer clothing provide a reasonable amount of protection where spray drift is light with very fine droplets that do not wet through to the skin. Under such conditions the clothing should be changed and laundered daily. If clothing used during spraying such as shirts, jackets, or coveralls are merely hung up to dry after work and used repeatedly, as is often the practice, it doesn't take

long for the pesticide material to work through where it will make contact with underclothes or skin.

In selecting protective clothing for workers it is important to take into consideration the comfort of the individual when he wears such items. The conventional black or dark green rubberized or plastic waterproof jackets in common use during past years are considered by many applicators to be uncomfortable to wear not only because of greater heat absorption but also because they may be of heavy grade material and not very flexible. During recent years, however, several jackets and jacket-trouser combinations that are lighter in color and weight have been available. Although less durable, they are less costly to replace. Nevertheless, there is still considerable discomfort in wearing any waterproof clothing during hot weather because of the trapping of body heat.

Observations of pesticide applicators have indicated that although waterproof clothing items, and especially jackets, are usually carried by the workers, or readily available to them, they usually will not don the clothing until drift of pesticide increases to the point where they feel protection is necessary. Unfortunately, by this time there is often considerable contamination of skin and clothing. The covering of contaminated skin areas by waterproof clothing may create conditions under which dermal absorption may be increased. This may be more important during hot weather where high temperatures and perspiration are involved. Whether or not there would be less absorption under these conditions than if the clothing were left off entirely depends upon the potential exposure which might occur after the worker puts on the clothing. Maibach and Feldman¹ found that covering up (occlusion) of contaminated skin with thin plastic wrap material caused approximately a four-fold increase in absorption of parathion. Although the increase of absorption of pesticide by covering contaminated skin with various items of protective clothing is not known, the above occlusion test results are cause to emphasize the need to put on protective gear before the skin has been contaminated to any great degree.

The use of waterproof jackets in pesticide formulating plants is not common and generally not considered a requirement if, as stated earlier, rubber aprons are worn and coveralls are kept clean. It should be noted, however, that in a plant there is more ready access to showers and other means of decontamination, should excess exposure occur, than in the field where applicators work.

Results of the dermal absorption studies noted above indicate that the head-neck area should be given more attention. In this area absorption of parathion was found to be from 32 to 47% of an applied dose;¹ much more than we would have anticipated and more than at other areas of the body studied with the exception of the armpit and scrotum. When observing either pesticide applicators or workers in formulating plants it is easy to conclude that the face-neck area is less protected than most other parts of the body. Head coverings or caps used in formulating plants are often made of material that allows easy penetration of pesticide onto the scalp. The headgear may have no bill or brim which would provide some

added protection to the face-neck area, especially from pesticide material which drifts downward.

Protection from downward drift is especially important during application of liquid sprays. The headgear most commonly used by pesticide applicators is the billed cap which provides some protection for the face but very little for the remainder of the head-neck area other than the scalp. The conventional "Sou'wester" rain hat, often used when heavy downward drift occurs, does not provide exceptionally good protection for the face and sides of the neck. This is because of the narrow brim in all areas except at the back of the neck. Metal or fiber "hard hats" are also used to some extent; however, most have too narrow a brim to provide adequate protection. "Hard hats" which allow circulation of air over the head under the hat should not be used where exposure is to toxic dusts.

Our studies have shown that the greatest protection from downward drift of pesticides is afforded by some type of wide-brimmed hat, preferably made of water-repellent material. Waterproof hats, other than the "Sou'wester," were not readily available at that time. However, one is now available which is waterproof and also has a wide brim that affords good protection of the face-neck area. This type of hat should be recommended for use by all applicators who may be subjected to downward drift of pesticides.

Of particular interest in relation to exposure of the head-neck area is the finding by Maibach and Feldman¹ that absorption of parathion is relatively efficient (47% of applied dose) in the ear canal. Exposure in this area could occur through drift of fine pesticide mists or dusts or by digging in the ear with the tip of a contaminated finger. Of particular importance is the potential for drift into the ear of concentrated dry formulations of toxic compounds in the formulating plant.

It is of importance to note that wearing goggles and respirators provides considerable protection to the face.

Although a statement suggesting the use of goggles can be found on certain pesticide labels, they are rarely worn except by pilots who apply pesticides by aircraft. Questioning of pilots has revealed that they wear goggles not only to prevent poisoning and to keep wind out of the eyes but also to prevent certain organophosphorus pesticides that are direct inhibitors of cholinesterase from causing miosis. This is understandable because it has been shown that unilateral contamination of the eye with TEPP may cause pilots to inadequately judge distance.² The incoordination which may accompany this could be a serious threat to safety.

The hands are often the body area having the highest exposure to pesticides and they have a greater chance of coming in contact with the more concentrate formulations. They are also more subject to cuts or abrasions, which will be discussed later.

High potential exposure to the hands brings attention to the need for wearing gloves. Some people who have worked with pesticides feel it is better not to wear gloves than to wear gloves that are contaminated on the inside; something which invariably occurs to some degree. Our research concerning the use of protective gloves indicates that, unless there is gross contamination of the inside of the gloves, the potential exposure is less when wearing gloves than when not wearing them. If gloves are kept clean on the inside there is very little doubt concerning the value of their use when handling pesticides. Unlined rubber gauntlet gloves provide the best protection because the gauntlet covers the wrist area not normally covered by the jacket sleeve and they can be turned wrong side out for proper cleansing of the unlined inside surface.

Waterproof shoes or boots should be worn when handling or applying pesticides on a large scale. During liquid spray operations the ground cover of weeds, grasses, or other plants invariably becomes wet with dilute pesticide regardless of whether or not it is the target of the application. Shoes quickly become contaminated when walking through such plant growth. When leather shoes become wet with spray material they have a tendency to become cracked and dried out to the extent that pesticide easily penetrates through to the sock or foot. Both leather and canvas shoes absorb chemicals and may hold them in contact with the wearer. Boots should be washed and dried thoroughly, inside and out, as frequently as needed to remove any pesticide contaminant.

Workers in pesticide formulating plants should wear waterproof boots. Coverall pant legs should be worn outside the boot tops to prevent sifting of dry concentrated pesticide into the footwear.

RESPIRATORY ROUTE

Protection of the respiratory route is especially important where toxic dusts and vapors or very small spray droplets are prevalent, or where application is in confined spaces. Extremely fine particles and droplets found in dusts and mists are much more easily drawn into the respiratory system than the larger droplets formed by most conventional dilute spray machines. Our tests have shown that when operating an 8X (eight times the normal dilute concentration) concentrate airblast machine in fruit orchards the potential respiratory exposure is nearly 3 times greater than when operating the conventional dilute machine.

Respiratory protection for most types of application can be provided by use of cartridge-type respirators or, in certain cases, gas masks with special cannisters which have greater adsorbent capacity than the cartridges. Applicator pilots who risk the possibility of flying through drift of fine droplets or dusts should use a face mask equipped with a filter cannister and attached either to their belt or to the inside of the cockpit. When fumigating or applying highly toxic pesticides in confined spaces it is advisable to use a respirator with a special compressed air supply tank so that none of the contaminated ambient air is inhaled.

Proper care of respirators is very important to the protection of the workers. The rubber face-piece becomes hardened and the head straps lose their elasticity with age and exposure to heat and sunlight. These conditions lead to poor fit and allow leakage around the face-piece. Two of the more common offenses in the care of respirators that we have observed are (1) failing to occasionally wash the face-piece with soap and water and (2) neglecting to change the filter cartridges or cannisters regularly. Washing of the face-piece of a cartridge-type respirator should not be attempted while the cartridges are in place as moisture may contact the activated charcoal filter material and reduce its effectiveness in adsorption and absorption of pesticides. Solvents should not be used as a cleaner for they may damage certain parts of the respirator. The general recommendation is that cartridges should be changed after 8 hours of continuous exposure. In most application situations this leaves much up to the individual worker to keep a record of his respirator exposure time. In a formulating plant where hours of exposure are more regular this is more easily controlled under the guidance of a foreman. Under conditions of intense exposure the useful life of the cartridge is much shorter. Thus, if the breathing seems hampered, or if the odor of pesticide is detected, the filter cartridges should be changed immediately. If the outer filter pads are separate removable units they should be changed more frequently than the cartridges.

During discussions of the respiratory route of entry into the body the question is often raised concerning the hazard of smoking pesticide-contaminated cigarettes. We have found it difficult to measure such potential exposure with any great degree of accuracy. The technique we have utilized thus far involves subjecting the cigarettes to normal handling through the process of removing them from the pack and placing them in the mouth, lighting them, and smoking one-half the cigarette. The remainder of the cigarette is then analysed for pesticide content. The values obtained are based on the assumption that pesticide on the cigarette will be volatilized before being broken down by burning and that none of the volatile or particulate pesticide would be trapped in the butt end of the cigarette. In observing smoking by workers it was noted that the area of greatest contamination of the cigarette was far enough from the butt end to allow burning of the contaminated area in most cases.

In studies of cigarette contamination by spraymen applying endrin in orchards, the potential exposure through smoking during application operations was calculated to be not more than 0.002 mg per cigarette, even when the cigarettes were handled with hands wet with the dilute spray.⁴ In later studies⁵ involving spraymen applying parathion to apple orchards by airblast machines, from 0.003 to 0.005 mg of parathion per cigarette could be recovered where they were handled with hands that were contaminated but dry. When handled with hands that were wet enough with dilute spray to leave moist spots on the cigarette paper from 0.020 to 0.050 mg could be found. In a controlled study designed to determine what might be the maximum contamination of cigarettes through such

handling, hands were dipped in 45% emulsifiable concentrate parathion, the hands wiped off lightly on the trousers, and the cigarettes were handled to simulate smoking. The highest value found was 0.235 mg per cigarette.

Even though values for potential respiratory exposure through smoking contaminated cigarettes may not appear to reflect any great hazard, two important points must be kept in mind: (1) Pesticide entering by the respiratory route is practically 100% absorbed, and (2) There is no assurance that a more toxic breakdown product will not be formed and inhaled as the high temperature of a burning cigarette reaches the contaminated areas rather than complete destruction of the compound by burning. For example, in the case of parathion the oxidation product, paraoxon, is estimated to be much more toxic than the parent compound, possibly 100 to 500 times more toxic. This could be an important factor as far as hazard is concerned and emphasizes the need for recommending washing of hands and face before smoking.

ORAL ROUTE

There has been little experimental work conducted to define the magnitude of oral exposure. We are studying techniques at the present time. Analysis of saliva samples of exposed individuals appears to give some indication of contamination.

The most serious oral exposure may be brought about by splashing of liquid concentrate into the mouth while pouring and measuring pesticides. Contamination may also occur through licking the lips, by rubbing the mouth with contaminated arms or hands, by careless actions such as attempting to blow out clogged spray nozzles with the mouth, or by eating or drinking with contaminated hands. Workers should wash hands and face before eating, drinking, or smoking.

ENTRY THROUGH CUTS OR ABRASIONS

This route of entry is one that may not have received enough attention in the past. Cuts and abrasions occur most frequently on the hands, and unfortunately the hands are the body area most often in contact with the more concentrate forms of pesticides.

Any break in the skin may allow a more direct route of entry into the blood stream. Even if the outer layer of dead cells (stratum corneum) of the skin is removed by scratching or scuffing the result may be a potential for increased absorption at that site as this layer of cells is considered the main barrier against chemicals. Maibach and Feldman¹ found that when most of these cells were removed by abrading through repeated application and removal of sticky tape, the absorption of parathion applied to the forearm could be increased more than 8-fold. There have been poisoning cases suspected as having been a result of entry through cuts or abrasions. However, there has not been enough evidence to definitely prove that this route played the major part in the illnesses.

DISCUSSION

Regardless of how specifically the measures for protection of workers from exposure to toxic pesticides may be stated for any particular situation, people who work with such compounds must realize that there is some element of risk involved. Accidents occur, even among workers who are careful. In case of accidental gross contamination of skin with a highly toxic compound every effort must be made to cleanse the contaminated area as quickly and as thoroughly as possible. The best recommendation at present is the use of plenty of soap and water. If pesticide gets in the eyes they should be thoroughly flushed with water for at least five minutes. If a person should feel ill while working with pesticides he should stop work at once and get medical attention. If his illness is diagnosed as being caused by a pesticide he should not return to work until a physician advises that it is safe to do so.

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ESTIMATED RELATIVE ACUTE TOXIC HAZARDS OF PESTICIDES TO SPRAYMEN

The estimates of hazards in this table are based primarily on the observed acute dermal and to a less extent oral toxicity of these compounds to experimental animals. Where it is available, use experience has also been considered. It should be noted that the classification into toxicity groups is both approximate and relative. These toxicity categories are not related to specific categories spelled out for label requirements.

MOST DANGEROUS	DANGEROUS	LESS DANGEROUS*	LEAST DANGEROUS
Bidrin	Aldrin	Akton	Abate
Carbamolate (Temik)	Azodrin	Azinophos-Methyl (Guthion)	Alar
Carbofuran (Furadan)	Baygon	Binapacryl (Morocide)	Aramite
Dasanit	Bidrin	BHC	Bromophos
Demeton (Systox)	Bux	Chlordane	Captan
Disulfoton (Di-Syston)	Carbophenothion (Trithion)	Ciodrin	Carbaryl (Sevin)
Dyfonate	Dichlorvos (DDVP)	Coumaphos (Co-Ral)	Chlorobenzilate
Lannate	Dieldrin	Diazinon	2,4-D
Mevinphos (Phosdrin)	Dioxathion (Delnav)	Dicaphon	DDT
Monitor	DMOC	Dichloroethyl ether	Dicofol (Kelthane)
Parathion	DMOSEP	Dichlorvos (DDVP)	Dilan
Phorate (Thimet)	Endrin	Dimethoate	Dinocap (Karathane)
Schradan (OMPA)	EPN	Dinobuten (Dessin)	Diquat
TEPP	Methyl parathion	Endosulfan (Thiodan)	Cardona
Zinophos (Cynex)	Nicotine	Ethion	Malathion
	Paraquat	Fenthion (Baytex)	Maneb
	Pentachlorophenol	Fundal	Methoxychlor
	Phosphamidon	Galecron	Mirex
	Zectran	Heptachlor	Morestan
	Zolone	Imidan	NAA
		Lead Arsenate	Omite
		Lindane	Perthane
		Maled (Dibrom)	Phostex
		Oxydemetonmethyl	Piperonyl butoxide
		(Meta-Systox-R)	Bonnel (Korlan)
		Ruelene	Rotenone
		Toxaphene	Sulphenone
		Trichlorfon (Dipterex)	TDE (DDO)
		VC-13	Tetradifon (Tedion)
		Vapan	

*The fumigant compounds acrylonitrile, D-D, or Vidden D, and Telone have toxicities which would indicate their placement in the "Less Dangerous" category. However, special note should be taken of the fact that the volatility of these compounds and their capacity to produce irritation of skin, eyes, and other tissues indicate that appropriate caution should be exercised in their use.

SELECTION OF THE PROPER PESTICIDE

Donald A. Eliason, M.P.H., Dr.P.H.

1. Define the problem

Before attempting to choose the proper insecticide for a particular job, that job must be defined. Although this statement should not have to be made to anyone engaged in pest control, all too often the failure of a chemical control measure or unexpected side effects may be due to failure to clearly define the problem. Chemicals now used for pest control are more specific in their action than similar compounds only a few years ago. It is therefore essential that the specific problem be defined. Doing so can greatly simplify the process of choosing the proper pesticide.

2. Consider non-chemical control measures

With our ever-increasing problem of pollution, it becomes imperative that non-chemical control measures be used wherever possible. Culture methods, water management, biological control agents, and other non-chemical control methods should be considered before resorting to chemical control.

3. Chemical control - the label

When considering the chemical for the job, use only those compounds that are labeled for control of the specific pest in the specific situation you have defined. In addition to the label, you should also check your local State restrictions on pesticides. Many states have now passed laws restricting certain compounds.

Years of research have provided background for the label and its warnings and restrictions should be heeded.

The label contains much information including: the concentration and chemical name of the active ingredient and the amount of inert ingredients; a listing of pests, crops, and methods of application for these situations; restrictions on the number of days a compound may be sprayed on a crop before harvest; and warnings of hazard to humans, animals, plants, and property.

4. Chemical control - choice of the proper pesticide

Once the pest problem has been defined, non-chemical methods have been considered, and information has been gathered on compounds that are

labeled for the use intended, a decision must be made on which compound to purchase and use. Elimination of compounds not labeled for that use has reduced the number considerably. Factors that now become important are:

- a. The compound must be effective against the target insects.
- b. The compound should present the least possible hazard to beneficial insects and other non-target organisms including birds, mammals.
- c. The compound should present minimal hazard to humans including the applicator.
- d. The compounds must be available in the required formulation and economically feasible to use.

In considering the requirements listed above, it is obvious that some compromises may need to be reached. It should be remembered that every application of a pesticide is a calculated risk.

THE MATHEMATICS OF MIXING AND APPLYING AGRICULTURAL CHEMICALS

John M. Wise

The one problem individuals working with agricultural chemicals always seem to have in common is the mathematics involved in mixing and application of chemicals to obtain a desired effect. This does not have to be such a troublesome task if it is approached in a systematic manner, with a basic understanding of the materials you are working with.

In order to achieve such an understanding, one must first have a knowledge of the terms most often encountered. Hence a definition of these terms follows:

1. Oil Concentrate

Oil concentrates are liquid formulations containing, preferably, a high concentration of active ingredient. They are generally used after dilution to a practical or convenient low concentration with an inexpensive hydrocarbon solvent such as fuel oil or diesel oil. The concentration may be expressed either in terms of pounds of active ingredient per gallon of concentrate or in terms of percent by weight of active ingredient.

2. Emulsifiable Concentrate

Emulsifiable concentrates are similar to the oil concentrates with the exception that they contain an amount of surfactant or emulsifier suitably selected to permit dilution of the concentrate with water for practical application. The majority of emulsifiable concentrates, especially those which are used for agricultural pest control, contain the active ingredient expressed in terms of pounds per gallon. Because of convenience to the user, emulsifiable concentrates may be considered the most popular form in which pesticide formulations are used.

3. Dust base or concentrates

Dust bases or dust concentrates are dry, free-flowing powders containing a high concentration of active ingredient which will vary generally from 25 to 75%. Such products are seldom applied in this concentrated form. They are usually diluted or cut back to a practical concentration with a suitable inert for final application in the field.

4. Wettable Powders

Wettable powders are similar to dust bases with the important difference that they are formulated for dilution into a final spray with water. The speed of wetting of wettable powders when placed in water is made possible by the proper choice of wetting agents which will reduce the surface tension between the particles and the water. Good suspensibility is attained by reducing the particle size, preferably, to below 325 mesh (44 microns). Surfactant types called dispersants are generally added to wettable powders as a part of the regular formulation to prevent the agglomeration of particles and in turn to slow down the rate of sedimentation which occurs as a function of particle size.

5. Dusts

As the name implies, dusts are very finely powdered dry pesticides. They are formulated to field strength which may vary from as low as 1% to as high as 10% active ingredients, depending upon the potency of pesticide and the rate of application. They must be free-flowing so that they can be accurately metered in application equipment. Particle size may vary although it is usually under 200 mesh (74 microns).

6. Granules

Granular pesticides are distinguished from powdered pesticides according to mesh size range. It is generally accepted that a granular pesticide is a product which is limited to a mesh size range from 4 mesh (U.S. Standard Sieve Series) to 80 mesh. For any given material (for example, a product labeled 30/60), at least 90% of the finished product must be within this specified mesh range, and the remaining 10% may be distributed on either side of the specified mesh sizes.

The concentration of active ingredient in granular pesticides may vary from as little as 1% to as high as 40% depending upon the properties of the active ingredient and the characteristics of the carrier or upon other factors such as the potency of the insecticide and the desired rate of application of the finished product.

7. Pounds per Gallon

Pounds per gallon is a term commonly used to express the amount of active ingredient in a formulation of either oil concentrate or emulsifiable concentrate. For example, an 8 pound per gallon Chlordane solution contains 8 pounds of actual Chlordane in each gallon of solution.

8. Percent by Weight

Percent by weight is also a term used to express the amount of active ingredient in a formulation. For example, a 20% Chlordane solution contains 20 pounds actual Chlordane for each 100 pounds of solution, or 20% of the total weight.

The actual calculations involved in preparing a finished spray or dust concentration are simple and accomplished by following a set of basic formulas. The following formulas will solve most solution preparation problems.

(1) Emulsifiable Concentrates - expressed in pounds per gallon

$$\text{Gallons emulsifiable concentrate to use} = \frac{8.33 \times G \times D}{100 \times C}$$

G = Gallons of dilute spray desired

D = Percentage dilute spray desired

C = Pounds toxicant per gallon in emulsifiable concentrate

Example: Make 96 gallons Chlordane .5% solution, using
Chlordane 8 pound per gallon Emulsifiable Concentrate

$$\text{Gallons Chlordane 8 lb./gal. E. C. to use} = \frac{8.33 \times 96 \times .5}{100 \times 8} = .5 \text{ gal.}$$

Use .5 gallons Chlordane 8 lb./gal. E. C. with 95.5 gallons of water.

Note: To convert from gallons to ounces, multiply by 128.

(2) Emulsifiable Concentrates - expressed in percent by weight

$$\text{Gallons emulsifiable concentrate to use} = \frac{8.33 \times G \times D}{C \times W}$$

G = Gallons dilute spray desired

D = Percentage dilute spray desired

C = Percentage active ingredient in emulsifiable concentrate

W = Weight in pounds of one gallon of the emulsifiable concentrate

Example: Make 5 gallons Diazinon .5% solution, using Diazinon
25% E. C.

$$\text{Gallons Diazinon 25\% E. C. to use} = \frac{8.33 \times 5 \times .5}{25 \times 8.3} = .1 \text{ gallon}$$

Convert to ounces by multiplying by 128 = 12.8 oz.

The above two formulas will work also on oil concentrates, with one slight change. The 8.33 is the weight of one gallon of water. When oil is used, substitute the weight of one gallon of the oil used for dilution (approximately 7 pounds per gallon).

(3) Wettable Powders

$$\text{Pounds of wettable powder to use} = \frac{8.33 \times G \times D}{C - D}$$

G = Gallons water or gallons finished spray desired

D = Percentage diluted spray desired

C = Percentage concentration of wettable powder

Example: Make 100 gallons of 1% DDT solution using DDT 50% W. P.

$$\text{Pounds DDT 50\% W. P.} = \frac{8.33 \times 100 \times 1}{50 - 1} = 17 \text{ pounds}$$

(4) Dust Concentrates

$$\text{Pounds of dust concentrate to use} = \frac{D \times G}{C}$$

G = Pounds of finished dust desired

D = Percentage of dust required

C = Percentage concentration of dust concentrate

Example: Make 1200 pounds of 5% Malathion Dust using Malathion 25% Dust Concentrate

$$\text{Pounds Malathion 25\%} = \frac{5 \times 1200}{25} = 240 \text{ pounds}$$

Use 240 pounds of Malathion 25% and 960 pounds of Inert Dust Base.

In order to apply agricultural chemicals, the first step is to have equipment you are familiar with and know how to operate. Once you have surpassed this obstacle, you can begin the mathematics of figuring the application rate.

Determine first the proper recommended rate of application in either gallons/acre or pounds/acre. If the rate is in gallons/acre, it will usually be expressed in a given percentage of active ingredient. Example, 200 gallons/acre of a 2% Chlordane solution. This is simply a matter of calculating the number of gallons required to do the job and using the formulas already given to mix the proper percentage solution.

The area of application which gives most individuals problems is in rates expressed in pounds/acre. Here again, it need not be made as complicated as we sometimes make it, if we approach it systematically.

First, determine the material you are working with. Is it dust, granular, or liquid? If it is liquid, is the concentration expressed in percent by weight or pounds per gallon?

Next, determine the amount of material to apply per acre. This is easily accomplished by following the following formulas:

(1) Dust or Granular

$$\text{Pounds to apply per acre} = \frac{A \times 100}{B}$$

A = pounds/acre active ingredient recommended for treatment

B = percentage active ingredient in base material

Example: Treat a field with 2 pounds/acre Malathion using 25% Malathion Dust

$$\text{Pounds to apply per acre} = \frac{2 \times 100}{25} = 8 \text{ pounds}$$

(2) Liquids expressed in percent by weight

$$\text{Pounds to apply per acre} = \frac{A \times 100}{B}$$

A = pounds/acre active ingredient recommended for treatment
B = percentage active ingredient in liquid concentrate

Example: Treat a field with 1-1/2 pounds/acre Chlordane using 75% Chlordane Emulsifiable Concentrate

$$\text{Pounds of 75\% Chlordane to apply/acre} = \frac{1.5 \times 100}{75} = 2 \text{ pounds}$$

(3) Liquids expressed in pounds/gallon

$$\text{Fluid ounces of concentrate} = \frac{A \times 128}{B}$$

A = pounds/acre active ingredient recommended for treatment
B = pounds/gallon active ingredient in liquid concentration

Example: Treat a field with 2 pound/acre Malathion using Malathion 5 pounds/gallon E. C.

$$\text{Fluid ounces of concentrate required} = \frac{2 \times 128}{5} = 51.2 \text{ oz.}$$

Use 51.2 fluid ounces of concentrate to treat each acre.

In both examples (2) and (3) you should mix this amount of concentrate with enough water to treat the acre of land. The amount of water to use will vary with the output of your spray equipment.

At this point a brief word of warning is needed. All agricultural chemicals are not chemically compatible when mixed together. Before mixing two or more chemicals, check a reliable compatibility chart, such as the one that follows, your state or county agricultural extension service, or the manufacturer of the material. This may save you a respraying job or, even worse, a complete destruction of the crop being treated.

One final formula that will help you as much, if not more than any of the others is:

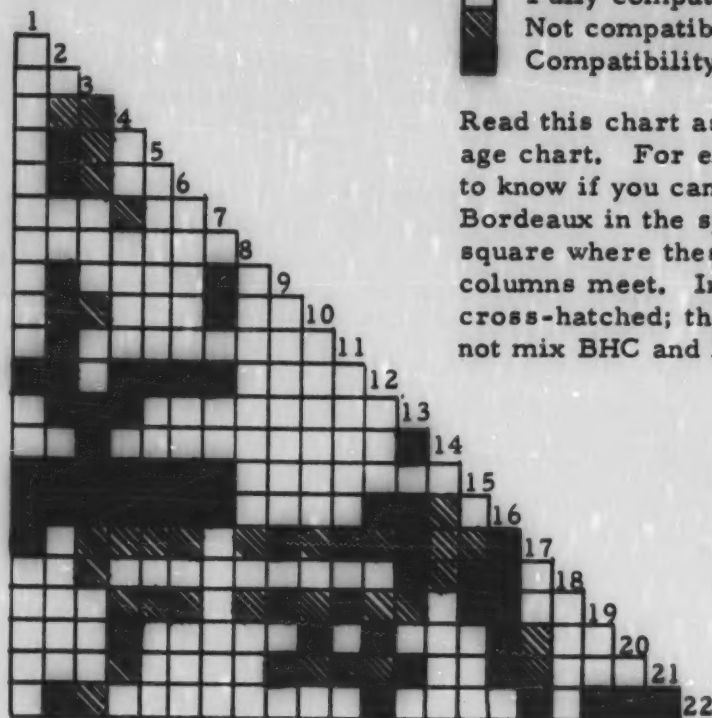
$$A + B = X$$

A = 1 pound of chemical
B = 5 pounds of judgment
X = Fewer problems

Compatibility of Common Spray Materials

Alphabetical List of Pesticides

Aldrin-9	Ferbam-22	Perthane-8
BHC-10	Fixed Coppers-20	Pyrethrum-6
Bordeaux-21	Heptachlor-9	Rotenone-5
Calcium Arsenate-2	Lead Arsenate-1	Strobane-11
Carbamate fungicides-22	Lime-19	Summer oils-14
Chlordane-9	Lime Sulfur-17	Systox-13
Copper Zinc Chromate-20	Lindane-10	TDE-8
Cryolite-4	Maneb-22	Tetraethyl Pyro- phosphate-12
DDD(TDE)-8	Meta-Systox-R-13	Thiram-22
DDT-8	Methoxychlor-8	Toxaphene-11
Dieldrin-9	Methyl Parathion-13	Wettable Limes-18
Dinitro compounds-16	Nicotine-7	Zinc Sulfate plus Lime-19
Dormant oils-15	Parathion-13	Zineb-22
Endrin-9	Paris Green-3	



Fully compatible
 Not compatible
 Compatibility questionable

Read this chart as you would a mileage chart. For example, if you want to know if you can mix BHC and Bordeaux in the spray tank, check the square where these two lines or columns meet. In this case, it is cross-hatched; therefore, you should not mix BHC and Bordeaux.

SAFE USE OF PESTICIDES ON THE FARM

John I. Fresman, D.V.M., M.P.H.

Pesticides are designed, manufactured, and sold as a product to destroy or alter a biological process, namely those things we classify as pests. However, the selectivity of many pesticides is dependent largely on the applicator and his ability to limit contact to the target organism. Parathion, for instance, is just as effective in killing little children as it is in killing flea beetles on tobacco. This has been demonstrated quite well in North Carolina as well as numerous other states.

Perhaps highly toxic pesticides can be used safely, and it would then be advantageous to keep such in our arsenal of tools against pests. However, I think the amount of illness and death directly attributable to pesticides is somewhat out of proportion. We have no balance in which to weigh the benefits of pesticides, such as food production, recreation, disease control, etc., against the human illness and morbidity. Perhaps it would even be unwise to make such a comparison. The results may be to "cut off our nose to spite our face;" that is, eliminate pesticides only to suffer greater ills at some point in the future.

Assuming that pesticides are essential to our modern society, then we have but one choice; i.e., the use of pesticides in such a way as to give maximum benefit and minimize hazards to human health and the environment. We may be approaching the maximum benefit from the use of pesticides, but we are a long way from minimizing the hazards. Let's look at some statistics we have accumulated in North Carolina. On July 1, 1970, we initiated a voluntary pesticide morbidity reporting system. A specific card was designed and mailed to every practicing physician in the state. By the end of December 1970, 132 of these cards had been returned to our office indicating an exposure either with or without symptoms. Of these 132 cases, 55 were marked as due to organic phosphorous pesticides. As of the end of June 1971, a total of 38 cases have been reported; 9 of these were due to organic phosphorous compounds. Comparing these figures to our list of reportable diseases, pesticides are a major cause of illness in North Carolina. Pesticides ranked seventh numerically in a list of forty reportable diseases. Pesticides as a cause of illness was exceeded by tuberculosis, hepatitis, measles, salmonellosis, malaria (military), and shigellosis. I will be the first to admit that reportable disease data is a rather poor indicator of the true incidence of any disease; however, the above figures have indicated to us that we have a major problem with pesticides-induced illness in North Carolina.

We have concentrated most of our efforts toward determining the "how and why" of pesticides-induced illness at the farm level. North Carolina has the second largest number of individual farmers and thus we have a large population at risk; that is, a high percentage of these farmers use one or more pesticides in their farming operation. In our investigations we have found essentially every way conceivable to misuse pesticides. While this paper is titled "Safe Use of Pesticides," perhaps it is worth our time to explore some aspects of misuse.

It is perhaps unfortunate that the chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticide preceded the organic phosphorous compounds. Farmers, at least in North Carolina, developed rather reckless procedures for handling pesticides during the chlorinated hydrocarbon era. One could dust cotton or tobacco all day with DDT and by sunset look like a snow man, but you can't follow the same procedure with parathion. The attitude, "well, I've done it this way for twenty years," has gotten users of insecticides into trouble during the transition from predominantly chlorinated hydrocarbon to organic phosphorous compounds. These reckless habits are evident not only during the mixing and application but also in attitudes toward transportation, storage, use of protective clothing, and disposal. I think it goes without saying that before we can expect to see pesticides used safely at the farm level, these kinds of attitudes must be changed. Now, how can this be accomplished?

Education is obvious for those that can be educated. Use and application laws are perhaps necessary to protect those that cannot be educated to a reasonable degree for self-protection and safe use. Not only the farmers or users must be educated, but the dealer or seller must also be schooled in the broad area of self-protection and safe use of pesticides. The majority of farmers, at least in North Carolina, acquire their information about pesticides from the dealer and this is generally at the time the product is purchased. Thus it would appear that the dealer, with whom the farmer is frequently acquainted, has the opportune time at which to stress the importance of and, if necessary, give explicit details about safety precautions in mixing, application, protective clothing, storage, and/or disposal.

Use and application laws can have considerable impact on the safe use of pesticides on the farm. The 1971 General Assembly of North Carolina enacted a broad Use and Application Law which will be administered by our State Department of Agriculture and governed by a seven-member policy board. This legislation gives the board authority to promulgate rules and regulations in the area of use and application of pesticides as well as formulation, storage, container design, marketing, transportation, and disposal. Through such legislation some of the inherent dangers can be removed or eliminated, such as parathion in glass jugs or paper labels that can easily be washed off by a rain.

Restricting the use of certain pesticides, generally the more toxic compounds, will affect the safety at the farm level. The legislation previously mentioned restricts the use of certain pesticides in time and place as well as the user or applicator. Under the North Carolina Use and Application Law, the purchaser of restricted pesticides will sign a statement to

the effect that he is aware of the dangers of the product and assumes the responsibility of the product. It is quite evident that with a tenant-landowner arrangement, the tenant is frequently subjected to undue hazards due to his illiteracy and the unfortunate results are often justified by, "well, he didn't follow the instructions on the label." The point is that even the most explicit and detailed label is meaningless to a man who cannot read or comprehend the message. Under this law, the landowner will have the responsibility to see that the tenant exercises reasonable safety precautions for self-protection or be liable for consequences. Perhaps this is a hard-line approach to changing the attitudes of some landowners, but it will probably be effective and the results will be a reduction in morbidity and mortality due to exposure to highly toxic pesticides on the farm.

I would now like to relate some of the specific problems we have encountered on North Carolina farms. While most of what we have seen could more correctly be classified as misuse or improper use, we have developed some ideas that we feel are practical at the farm level for safe use of pesticides.

Concentrates

From the standpoint of human exposure, concentrate pesticides are particularly hazardous. Spills that occur while pouring concentrates from the original container to the spray tank are extremely common and perhaps the use of a wide-mouth funnel would prevent a large number of the accidental spills. Yet, farmers object to using a funnel for a simple and justifiable reason; i.e., it collects dust and dirt particulates which you then wash into the spray tank and eventually clog up the spray nozzles. This then would require disassembly of the spray rig with probably skin exposure to the diluted material. Thus, the simple suggestion of using a funnel may be totally impractical in a dusty field. Likewise, the use of rubber gloves and a rubberized suit is somewhat impractical in July or August. There is not much value in protecting an individual from exposure to organic phosphorous compounds to the point of heat prostration or sun stroke. So, while the use of rubberized clothing will probably do the job, it is often quite impractical.

If one minimizes the time that concentrate pesticides are on the farm, the likelihood that an accident will occur is also reduced. I have observed teenage tobacco primers and parathion on the same pick-up truck many times; also, livestock feed and pesticides on the same pick-up truck. During the spray season a farmer's pick-up truck frequently serves as a temporary storage facility for pesticides. From the standpoint of safety, we strongly urge that the farmer purchase only that required for the immediate application. It is certainly safer to let the dealer store pesticides until the next application than to haul it around on a pick-up or set it out in the yard.

Another observation we have made appears to be somewhat reversed. Frequently a farmer and one or more teenage children will be applying pesticides and most often the teenager will be recharging the spray tank while

the adult is operating the equipment. We had five such cases to occur this year which involved Dysyston and Dasanit. In each case the farmer had reached the conclusion that it was more hazardous to operate the spray equipment than it was to handle the concentrates and recharge the spray tank; thus, the teenager was assigned the less hazardous task. If teenagers are to be employed or, in the case of one's own child, and working during application, they should in fact operate the equipment. While the risk of minimum exposure is perhaps increased, the likelihood of sudden acute illness is probably decreased. Children and teenagers are more susceptible to the effects of organic phosphate compounds than are adults. Therefore, accidental spills are probably less likely to occur when adults handle concentrates, adults are more likely to be cognizant of the danger of a spill, and the risk of acute illness would probably be less for any given accidental spill.

While handling concentrates on the farm, one should always recommend the use of protective clothing, pouring funnels, etc. It should also be stressed that concentrates should be purchased and used immediately, thus minimizing the time they are actually on the farm. Concentrates should only be handled by an adult.

Application

During the past two years we have investigated numerous pesticide cases that were the result of improper application practices. Most of these cases were the result of prolonged exposure from several days to several weeks. Both farmer-applicators and commercial applicators have been involved; however, the epidemiology of these two groups have been almost identical. Careless practices, the path of least resistance, and urge to get the job completed sums up our experience with application cases. More often than not, the operator of a spray rig in eastern North Carolina will be seen with no shirt or mask. It is more comfortable to ride a tractor without a shirt or mask - the path of least resistance. Farmers are notorious for "getting in a hurry" once they finally get started. Many hours may be spent at the local county store in heated debate of topics ranging from A to Z. However, when they finally get on a tractor to apply pesticides, they are suddenly behind schedule and little regard is given to protective measures, wind direction, and resultant drafts. Repair of clogged nozzles or leaking lines are frequently done in the field without gloves or source of water to wash after completing repairs. Commercial applications frequently schedule their work loads to the maximum acreage load of their equipment, which gives little time to consider weather conditions and repairs.

These practices result in excessive exposure during application which have an accumulative effect to gradually lower one's cholinesterase level to the point that symptoms of organic phosphorous poisoning occurs. While it is reasonable to suggest that a farmer select the optimum weather conditions to apply pesticides, this cannot always be accomplished. However, exposure can be minimized by wearing tight weave cotton clothing and

a respirator, such as a Wilson, both of which are reasonably comfortable even in extreme hot weather. It is our recommendation that a farmer or commercial applicator completely change clothes at noon and that a change of clothes be carried on the equipment. In the event of an accidental spill in the field, the clothes should be changed immediately and then proceed to the nearest place where water is available.

Clothing

I have heard many discussions and viewed numerous films that recommended a complete rubberized suit including hat, gloves, and boots as the panacea in protective clothing. I am not trying to belittle the value of this type of clothing, but I have learned through experience the limitations of such during hot weather. During the latter part of June of this year, we assisted in the cleanup following a fire which completely destroyed a large pesticide warehouse in eastern North Carolina. Since considerable liquid waste was impounded at the fire site and many tons of granular material was mixed in the rubble from the warehouse, we began by requiring all persons working in the area to wear light weight rain gear plus rubber gloves, rubber boots, and respirators. The temperature was approximately 90 degrees and the rain gear lasted about four hours. While this may have been the best way of protecting the workers against dermal exposure, it was totally impractical. The rain suits were discarded in lieu of long sleeved shirts plus the rubber gloves, boots, and a Wilson-Agratox respirator. The cleanup was completed in six days without anyone developing illness and apparently with minimal exposures. Twenty-four bloods were collected for cholinesterase levels and they ranged from 10 to 17 m/min/ml.

Consideration must be given to protective clothing and each recommendation must be applicable and practical to the given situation. The purpose is either to eliminate or minimize dermal exposure; therefore, the more comfortable the operator can be and still accomplish this objective, the more likely he will be to follow a recommendation.

Availability of Water

It is reasonable to assume that accidents will continue to occur on the farm that will result in dermal exposures. The results of such exposures can range from death to only an irritation or rash of the exposed skin area. While it is more important to give prompt attention to those accidents that involve highly toxic compounds, the procedure that one should follow regardless of the type of compound is the same. The clothing should be immediately removed and one should proceed without delay to the nearest source of water and thoroughly wash the area. Now, it is extremely difficult to get farmers to understand that "immediately" does not mean when they finish a particular field, or waiting till noon time. There are several factors that affect dermal absorption, one of which is time, and this is the only factor over which one has some control once an accidental spill has occurred and the skin has been contaminated.

While water is generally not available in the field, at least in quantities beyond that for drinking purposes, it is usually near by, at least in North Carolina. In an emergency situation a farm pond, stock tank, creek,

river, or neighbor's house may be reached in several minutes, thus reducing the time variable and dermal absorption.

Storage

The simple answer to the storage problem is a lock and key. Yet, probably no more than 10% of the farmers in eastern North Carolina store their pesticides under lock and key. A survey of 245 farmers in one county revealed that 10.9% of the farmers actually had pesticides stored in a locked building. This is incredible when this is compared to the number of locked gasoline storage tanks on the same farms. On every farm that had a gasoline storage tank, it was locked.

Most of our experience with improper storage has involved children and contamination of rural wells. We have investigated numerous cases of illness and several deaths that were the results of leaving toxic pesticides, generally parathion, in areas accessible to children. Children drink a liquid and play in the dust and granules. It is quite amusing to a 5-year-old to get a white powder all over him and then play "monster."

We have observed contamination of rural wells due to pesticides being left in close proximity to the well. In most cases, the tractor and spray tank was pulled alongside the well to be filled. The pesticide was added to the tank and the container set down beside the well. Subsequently, the containers were either broken or a child poured it out and contamination of the well resulted.

If pesticides are to be stored on the farm, then the use of a locked building is an effective and practical way of eliminating their accessibility to children. This is a method of protection that farmers are accustomed to and have accepted as effective. The real question is how do you motivate farmers to exercise the same degree of protection for their children and their neighbor's children as they do for a gallon of gasoline? Storage under lock and key is the first step, but consideration must also be given to other commodities within the building, which should not include animal feed or edible products.

Disposal

Disposal of pesticides and/or containers at the farm level is indeed a difficult question. Yet, disposal must be considered as part of the farm safety pesticides program and it must be considered in light of the immediate hazard as well as the long range effect. Much has been said about incineration and compositing of pesticides, neither of which is practical or available to the average farmer. So this leaves the farmer with three methods of disposing of pesticides and their containers, i.e. landfill, burial on premises, and the traditional method of open dump. The open dump method, perhaps more descriptive would be "at site of last use", is by far the most common method of disposal in North Carolina. The survey mentioned earlier indicated that greater than 80% of the farmers who had previously disposed of pesticides or their containers did so by either leaving them in or near the field or discarded with the domestic and farm refuse onto an open dump, generally on the immediate farm.

The landfill method is perhaps the most feasible method available at the present time. Yet without county-wide collection systems, even this is somewhat impractical. Pesticide waste should not be mixed with general refuse nor would it be desirable to have farmers deposit this material at the landfill site on a routine basis. The trend in solid waste management in general is toward area-wide collection systems and landfilling. Once area-wide solid waste management practices are established, it would seem reasonable to integrate the disposal of pesticides and perhaps other hazardous material into the system.

At the present time, the only reasonable avenue of disposal of pesticides and their containers that is available to the farmer is to bury them on the farm. While this may not be the most desirable method, it is the most practical at this point in time. As long as little children continue to experience illness and death, I cannot accept the approach of hold the pesticides and containers until a method better than burying is developed. We have arrived at the following recommendations from our experience in the field.

1. Farmers should purchase only the amount of pesticides required for each application.
2. Excess pesticides should be applied as per recommendations or returned to the dealer.
3. Pesticide containers should be rendered unusable and buried at least eighteen inches deep in a remote area away from sources of water.

These procedures are applicable only when incorporated into an over-all safety program and adhered to throughout the usage season. Should one decide on a general cleanup for the purpose of discarding all unused pesticides and containers, we have suggested that a strong lye compound be added to the liquids to raise the pH to the point that alkaline hydrolysis occurs and the toxicity of the organic phosphate compounds are reduced. The containers and liquids are then buried in a remote area away from a source of water and preferably in an area underlaid with clay.

We recently landfilled both the solid and liquid waste from the fire that I mentioned earlier. This material is in two separate half acre cells. This area will be monitored for several years to determine the movement of pesticides from the landfill site.

There are twenty-seven pesticide formulation plants in North Carolina all of which have no means of disposing their solid waste. Our current plans are to work with these plants in getting this waste material into approved landfills. This perhaps is not the ultimate answer to pesticide disposal but appears to be the only practical approach for the present and the immediate future.

Pesticides and Institutional Environments

Frank S. Lioy,* Ph.D./Elden F. Savage,† Ph.D./and Harold G. Scott,‡ Ph.D.

Nursing and convalescent homes, hospitals, child-care facilities, mental hospitals, and other institutions have unique challenges as far as environmental control is concerned. The problems involved in maintaining a wholesome institutional environment are magnified by the increased number of persons served and the services provided by these institutions as well as by the increased number of such institutions.

Pesticides are used to alleviate some health problems in institutions, and the use of these chemicals has helped to control many vector borne diseases. They are a necessary part of institutional sanitation programs. It is, therefore, extremely important that sanitarians and other environmental health workers have the latest information on both health hazards and efficiency of various compounds available for pest control.

In addition to the use of pesticides, measures should be taken to prevent the introduction of vermin into institutions. For example, many of the occupants of mental institutions are not capable of keeping their living areas sanitary. These areas can be the foci of insect and rodent problems. Storing foodstuffs (particularly home-cooked foods brought in) in bedside stands may contribute to cockroach problems. Nursing home patients

may bring clothing, furniture, and books into the institution from their homes and bring roaches and silverfish in with them. Routine inspections could help prevent these incidents.

Pesticides are applied either by commercial pest control firms or by house-keeping or maintenance personnel in the institution. Whoever is responsible, the institutional environment may pose special problems with respect to pesticide use, and adequate precautionary measures must be taken.

Human Exposure

Before chemical treatment of an infestation, the problem of human exposure to the pesticide becomes a major concern. Pesticides enter the human body through oral ingestion and respiratory and dermal exposure.¹ The size of the dose and the duration of exposure are important in determining what adverse effects any pesticide may have on human health.² The institutionalized patient, regardless of the reason for his confinement, cannot afford the extra burden of an illness caused by the improper or careless use of any pesticide. The association between pesticides and human illness has been reported by several individuals in other publications.^{3, 4, 5, 6} Thus, the decision to use any pesticide must be based on the potential hazard of the chemical to patients and applicators, health status of the exposed patients, persistence of the pesticide, alternative methods of control, knowledge of the life cycle of the insect or rodent species, and a series of interrelated ecological factors.

These safety precautions should be observed. All persons who use pesticides should know the precautions shown on the label for each compound, and the information should be followed carefully.

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Ideally, pest control operators or maintenance personnel should carry, on their person, records indicating blood type, history of transfusion reaction, significant history of disease such as diabetes, epilepsy or asthma and other allergies including history of drug sensitivities, and the name of any drug taken regularly.⁷ If this is not practical, the desired information should be contained in the individual's employee health record. Cholinesterase values should be checked periodically on those individuals who apply organic phosphorous chemicals. Within the administrative framework of the institution, certain individuals should be responsible for advising all members of the professional staff on what types of pesticide compounds are being used, and the appropriate antidotes should be stocked in case of emergency.

Mixing the Chemical

When directed by the container label, persons mixing wettable powders (or applying toxic dusts) should wear protective clothing, gloves, goggles, and an approved respirator. Gauntlet-type gloves made of natural rubber or other approved materials are preferred. The pesticide material should be mixed according to the directions contained on the label. In no case should beverage bottles, fruit jars, or other empty food containers be used to measure or store pesticides. Each year, tragic preventable poisonings occur when children obtain food containers filled with insecticides or other "empty" insecticide containers.⁸

Personal Hygiene

After using pesticides, and before eating or smoking, people must wash their hands. The clothing worn during application of pesticides should be removed and washed after the job is completed and the person should bathe thoroughly. In the event that a pesticide is spilled on the skin, the affected area should be washed with fresh water and medical attention sought immediately. Contaminated clothing should be washed separately before reuse.

Insecticides

There are specific safety precautions

for using insecticides and rodenticides in institutions. Insecticides can be classified on the basis of their chemical structure. For example, there are the chlorinated hydrocarbon compounds such as DDT, chlordane, endrin, aldrin, dieldrin, heptachlor, and many others. The organic phosphorous group includes parathion, malathion, diazinon⁹, fenitrothion, ronnel, DDVP, dipterex⁹, and others. Rotenone and pyrethrum are classified as botanical since these chemicals are of plant origin. The carbamate insecticides include carbaryl and baygon⁹. Specific recommendations for the use of these compounds are outlined elsewhere.⁹ The symptoms and treatment for poisoning by these compounds also differ for each class.¹⁰

Efforts for the elimination of insects must be accompanied by environmental improvement programs in food preparation, storage, and other sections of the institution. Adequate housekeeping procedures should be implemented in the main food service facilities, ward kitchens, special diet kitchens, infant formula preparation rooms, cafeterias, boiler rooms, dumbwaiter shafts, laundry chutes, vending machine areas, laboratories, and other likely places of infestation. Extreme caution must be observed when applying insecticides so that food and food products do not become contaminated with the spray material.

Careful attention should be paid to label instructions on the insecticide container to determine whether or not the chemical is safe for use in rooms, wards, or cells where persons may be confined for extended periods of time. The applicator should avoid spraying bedpans, emesis basins, carafes, and other items which may be brought in direct contact with the patients or attendants. When applying pesticides for bedbug control, the mattress must not be soaked with spray. Treatment of infant bedding, including the crib, should be avoided.⁹

Rooms in which oxygen is being administered, or where isolation procedures are in effect, should not be sprayed. Intensive-care units should not be treated while occupied. In the event that it is necessary to treat the grounds of the in-

stitution with a chemical agent, humans and animals should be kept off the treated area until it has been well watered and completely dried.

During recent years, metered intermittent aerosol insecticide devices have become available. Of widespread use are those devices which utilize the chemical pyrethrum in combination with piperonyl butoxide as a synergistic agent. In addition to the precautions listed on the label, these devices should not be used in nurseries or rooms where infants, ill or aged persons are confined.

Insecticide-impregnated polyethylene strips containing DDVP (dichlorovos) are being marketed for insect control. These strips should be used in accordance with the instructions on the label, and as an added precaution, they should not be used in rooms where infants, ill or aged patients are housed. Vaporizing devices employing the chemical lindane should never be used in the institutional environment because of the highly toxic nature of this material.

Rodenticides

Rats and mice are a major concern in the institutional environment. The presence of vermin of this type can lead to health and psychological problems among the patients. Rats and mice are usually associated with poor garbage and refuse storage facilities and other insanitary conditions in the institution.

The use of rodenticides may frequently be necessary as an adjunct to environmental improvement programs. Rodenticides may be classified on the basis of their mode of action in the target animal. The degree of safety associated with the various compounds differs. All rodenticides that are to be used within occupied buildings or on the grounds of an institution must be placed where they will be inaccessible to patients. Paraffin-coated baits might be attractive to children; therefore, their use must be carefully supervised.

Because of their high toxicity to man and animals, chemicals such as sodium monofluoroacetate (1080) or fluoracetamide should not be used in any structure housing persons.⁹ These chemicals should

be applied only by licensed pest control operators to outbuildings or other structures which can be made secure against entry by unauthorized persons. Norbormide is a recently developed rodenticide which has a low order of toxicity to man and other mammals except the Norway and brown rat. It can be used safely in the presence of pets, livestock, and poultry.⁹

The low order of toxicity of the anti-coagulant rodenticides to man make these chemicals suitable for use in the institutional environment. It appears unlikely that poisoning with these pesticides will occur except with suicidal intent or as the result of gross carelessness and ignorance.⁹

The rodenticide, red squill, is also reasonably safe. This material is a natural emetic for man and animals and is suitable for use against the Norway rats where there is risk of human exposure.

Precautions must be taken when using hydrogen cyanide for rodent burrow gassing. This gas is active in a moist environment; thus, if applied when the burrows are dry, fumes may be liberated for an extended period of time. Frequently, rodent burrows end at buildings on the institutional complex; therefore, caution must be taken so that the gas is not used in an area where there is any possibility that it might escape into a housing unit.

Fumigants

When fumigants such as methyl bromide are to be used, special precautionary measures must be taken. This chemical should be applied only by licensed pest control operators with special training in fumigation techniques. Guards should be posted at all entryways to the building being fumigated before, during, and after the fumigation process. Approved gas masks and other safety equipment should be required.

Storage of Pesticides

As a means of preventing accidents, all pesticides should be properly stored. Areas in which food is prepared or stored — main kitchen, ward kitchen, special diet kitchens, utility closets, and similar locations—are not suitable for storing pesticides.

All pesticides should be stored in a locked cabinet or locked storage area reserved for that purpose in the plant maintenance department or similar location away from the main institutional complex. The area should be inaccessible to animals and unauthorized personnel, and keys should be available only to authorized persons. The storage area or cabinet should be dry and well ventilated, and maintained at room temperature. All pesticide containers should be adequately labeled and tightly closed.¹¹ Under no circumstances should pesticides be placed in empty food or drink containers of any kind. An important facet of proper storage is the examination of pesticide containers for leaks or damage.¹² If this occurs, the material should be transferred to a leakproof container which is clearly labeled and dated with the same date as the original container. The old container should be decontaminated, made unusable, and disposed of in an approved manner.

Professional pest control operators servicing the institution should be required to keep everything locked in the service truck so that supplies cannot be removed by anyone other than authorized servicemen.¹³

Disposal of Pesticide Containers

The disposal of large numbers of pesticide containers from institutions may pose a problem since used containers might have to be stored prior to collection and transfer to the disposal site. If this is necessary, the empty containers should be stored in a locked, protected area, especially if the labels have been lost and the empty pesticide containers are used for another purpose.¹⁴

The recommended disposal methods for most types of solid wastes originating from institutions include burial (sanitary landfill) and incineration. The recommended procedure for sanitary landfill operation includes strict engineering practices in site selection, planning, design, and operation. Precautions must be taken so that underground and surface waters are not contaminated. The sanitary landfill operation should include provision for daily covering of the com-

pacted refuse with six inches of compacted earth. The finished landfill should be covered with two feet of compacted earth.¹²

Many pesticide containers can be disposed of by incineration. This involves burning the material in a properly designed incinerator with a stack temperature of 1200 - 1800 degrees F. Many institutional incinerators are not capable of attaining these temperatures; thus, the local health authorities or manufacturers' representatives of the incinerators should be consulted. The incinerator design should also provide for the disposal of gases emitted from combustible materials and the disposal of residual ash. In all situations involving disposal of pesticide containers, state or local health department authorities should be consulted.

Training

The cohesive nature of most institutions creates an ideal situation for conducting pesticide safety training programs. These programs should be directed to all staff levels and should revolve around the safe use, storage, disposal of pesticide containers, and potential hazards to patients and inmates.

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Reprinted from the *Journal of Environmental Health*, Volume 33, No. 5, March/April, 1971

PUBLISHED BY THE NATIONAL ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH ASSN.
1600 PENNSYLVANIA ST., DENVER, COLO. 80203

SAFE USE OF PESTICIDES IN VECTOR CONTROL

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Effective, safe vector control is best accomplished by trained personnel who

1. Know the biology of the vector,
2. Understand the control equipment, its capacity and limitations,
3. Use only approved pesticides, and
4. Read the label and follow directions.

The four major groups of vectors are the rodents, mosquitoes, flies, and fleas. Each group has such different habits, biology, and control techniques that they will be considered separately.

RODENTS

Rodents cause an estimated \$100 million to \$1 billion economic loss each year in the United States. They are of great public health importance because of rat bites, rat bite fever, salmonellosis, leptospirosis, murine typhus, plague, and other diseases (1).

Rodent control procedures involve

1. Good sanitation (primarily good practices in the storage, collection, and disposal of garbage and refuse, good storage of foodstuffs, and harborage removal),
2. Rodent stoppage, and
3. Rat killing, including trapping and proper use of rodenticides.

The four rodenticides most commonly used to control commensal rats and mice are the anticoagulants, red squill, zinc phosphide, and calcium cyanide.

The anticoagulants, such as warfarin, fumarin, pindone (Pival), diphacinone, and chlorophacinone (Rosol) kill by decreasing the ability of the blood to clot or coagulate (hence their common name "anti-coagulants") so that the rodents literally bleed to death. With warfarin, fumarin, and pindone (Pival), the rodents must eat the anticoagulant baits for four or five days or longer before maximum kill begins. Therefore, the anticoagulants are called "multiple dose poisons". Usually it is recommended that the baits be exposed for two weeks or longer. On the other hand some people feel that rodents may be killed three to five days after one feeding on diphacinone or chlorophacinone anticoagulant baits. More research is being conducted at the present time on this important aspect of commensal rodent control.

The anticoagulants are used either as liquid or solid baits. The liquid baits are usually prepared by adding a package of the powdered anticoagulant to a quart of water for dispensing with chicken water fountains or similar devices. The solid baits are used at the following strengths (2) as shown on the table below.

Table 1. Multiple-dose rodenticides employed against mice, roof rats and Norway rats.

Rodenticide	Percent Concentration		
	Mice	Roof Rat	Norway Rat
diphacinone	0.012-0.025	0.005-0.01	0.005-0.01
warfarin	0.025-0.05	0.025	0.005-0.025
Fumarin	0.025-0.05	0.025	0.025
pindone(Pival)	0.025-0.05	0.025	0.025

Dilution factors:

0.05% (500 ppm) = 1 part of 0.5% concentrate to 9 parts of bait.
 0.025% (250 ppm) = 1 part of 0.5% concentrate to 19 parts of bait.
 0.01% (100 ppm) = 1 part of 0.5% concentrate to 49 parts of bait.
 0.005% (50 ppm) = 1 part of 0.5% concentrate to 99 parts of bait.

Many of the anticoagulants are available as 0.5% concentrates which can be prepared as final baits by mixing 1 part of the 0.5% concentrate with 19 parts of yellow cornmeal or a mixture of yellow cornmeal and oatmeal, scratch feed, or grain to give the final percentage of 0.025% used to control Norway rats. The addition of one part of sugar and/or vegetable oil may make these baits more attractive to roof rats and house mice which are nibblers and have more finicky appetites. Some authorities prefer to use 1 part of the concentrate to 9 parts of bait for controlling mice.

The anticoagulants should be placed in protected places in cardboard, foil, metal, plastic, or crockery containers; in bait boxes, some of which can be padlocked; or in paper or plastic bags, often stuffed down rodent burrows or hiding places. Sometimes these plastic bags are manufactured with an attractive synthetic odor smelling somewhat like vanilla, maple syrup, roast beef, apple, or citrus. Studies are currently being conducted to determine if these synthetic odors increase attraction and bait acceptance. Sewer rats may be controlled by the use of paraffin bait blocks containing these same mixtures of the anticoagulant baits in paraffin. This type of preparation prevents mould formation in the warm, damp sewer environment, and also the washing away of bait in loose grain form when sewers are periodically flooded following rainstorms. The paraffin bait blocks are usually fastened with wire to a masonry nail driven into the sewer wall.

Great care should be taken to keep these anticoagulant rodenticides away from people, particularly children, and pets. No harm is done by a single massive feeding. Even if a child should eat the unappetizing dry bait mixture for four or five days, he can be saved by the prompt administration of whole blood or vitamin K.

Red squill is a single-dose vegetable poison made from the powdered bulb of an onion-like plant, Urginea maritima. It has a bitter taste and natural emetic action, factors that contribute to its safe use as a rodenticide. Rodents, unlike humans and most domestic animals, are unable to vomit and are therefore not protected by the emetic quality of the red squill, which kills them by paralyzing the heart. This poison is not well accepted by roof rats and house mice, but it can be used effectively against Norway rats if exposed in a very attractive fresh bait at the beginning of a killing campaign.

The usual methods of application are (1) pieces of bread smeared with the liquid red squill, or (2) "torpedoes" or "kisses" made with one part of fortified red squill (with an LD₅₀ of 500 mg/kg.) and nine parts of fresh, attractive bait materials such as ground meat, fish, or grains, or a combination of these materials.

The red squill baits are usually placed in rat burrows, in protected places away from children and pets, or scattered over an open dump prior to its conversion to a sanitary landfill.

Zinc phosphide is a single-dose rodenticide which is used at 1% strength, such as 4 oz. of zinc phosphide and 25 lbs. of fresh cubed sweet potato or apple. The baits are placed in rodent burrows, or protected places away from people and pets. In general, people and pets are repelled by the garlic-like odor of the zinc phosphide but Norway rats accept these baits very well.

Calcium cyanide fumigation is used to supplement other methods of rat killing, particularly to kill rats in burrows in banks, under slabs, along railroad tracks, and similar situations well away from buildings. The calcium cyanide dust is blown into the burrows with a foot pump, where the chemical reacts with the moisture in the air or ground to liberate hydrogen cyanide gas which kills both rodents and rodent fleas. This work should be done only by trained personnel wearing masks, always working upwind to prevent the possibility of accidental poisoning with the cyanide dust.

Many other rodenticides such as strychnine, thallium sulphate, arsenic trioxide, 1080, 1081, and Gophacide have been used in the past, but their use is restricted or prohibited today (1, 2, 3.). One promising new rodenticide, norbormide, holds promise as the ideal type of rodenticide since it is lethal to Norway rats, but not to most other mammals including man. Field trials have indicated good kill but erratic acceptance. With new bait materials, or attractants, norbormide may have an important role as a single-dose, safe rodenticide for Norway rats.

MOSQUITOES

Mosquitoes cost the American public \$75-\$100 million in organized mosquito control programs and much more for repellents, aerosol bombs, and screening by the individual householder to prevent the discomfort, reactions, secondary infections and diseases resulting from mosquito bites. Some of the diseases transmitted by mosquitoes are malaria, yellow fever, dengue, filariasis and the arbovirus encephalitides (4, 5).

Mosquito repellents for personal protection are widely used, including such materials as deet (diethyl toluamide), dimethyl phthalate, Rutgers 612, Indalone, and similar materials. Follow the directions in using these chemicals, either as liquid or aerosol preparations, paying particular attention to keeping them away from the eyes, nose, mouth and other mucous membranes, and synthetics such as watch crystals.

Mosquito larval control includes draining and filling, proper water management, and the use of approved larvicides. Some of the larvicides most widely used include -

1. Fuel oil, preferably with a spreading agent such as T-Det, Triton X-100 or Hercules B-1956 to reduce the application rate to 2 to 5 instead of the usual 15 to 20 gallons per acre.
2. Flit MLO at 1 to 5 gallons per acre, depending on vegetation and the type and temperature of the water.
3. Paris green granules at 15 lbs. of 5% granules per acre.

Note: in some states the use of this copper-aceto-arsenite is prohibited because it is considered an inorganic arsenical, while in others its use is permitted as an organic arsenical, depending on whether one interprets the acetic acid component as "inorganic" or "organic".

4. Organic phosphorus compounds such as -
 Abate at 0.05-0.1 lb. per acre; Dursban at 0.0125-0.05 lb. per acre
 fenthion (Baytex) at 0.02-0.1 lb. per acre
 malathion at 0.2-0.6 lb. per acre
 methyl parathion at 0.1 lb. per acre
 parathion at 0.1 lb. per acre.
5. Methoxychlor at 0.05-0.2 lb. per acre.
6. Pyrethrum at 0.006-0.007 lb. per acre.

Care should be taken in the application of these materials to prevent damage to vegetation or other non-target organisms. To obtain the dosage listed above, follow label direction carefully. For example, to obtain 0.2-0.5 lb. of malathion per acre, apply 4 to 10 quarts of 2.5% malathion spray per acre; to obtain 0.1 lb. fenthion per acre, apply 2 lbs. of 5% granules per acre, or 4 quarts of 1.25%, 2 quarts of 2.5% or 1 quart of 5% spray per acre; to obtain parathion at 0.1 lb. per acre, apply one gallon of spray containing 0.1 lb. parathion per gallon per acre.

Adult mosquito control inside homes is usually achieved through proper screening and the use of aerosol sprays containing pyrethrum or allethrin because these insecticides give quick knock-down of the insects, a synergist such as piperonyl butoxide, and a low-toxicity insecticide such as methoxychlor to produce the final kill.

Space spraying is the chief method of achieving adult mosquito control in many communities, through fogging, misting, or most recently, the ultra-low-volume application with airplane or ground equipment. Only two insecticides are currently approved for the ULV aerial method of application:

malathion at 1 to 3 fluid ounces per acre, and
 naled (Dibrom) at 0.5 to 1 fluid ounce per acre

Specifications for airplane equipment for the ULV method have been published by Kilpatrick (6) involving special tanks, electrically-driven pumps, spray booms, and 8001 to 8008 Tee-Jet nozzles.

In general ULV applications should be made -

1. When temperatures are below 80°, or before any temperature inversions occur (usually early morning);
2. With droplets averaging 25 to 60 microns MMD (Median Mass Diameter) and at least 10 droplets per inch; and
3. By multi-engine aircraft flying at a height of 100-150 feet, at speeds of about 150 miles per hour, with swath widths of 300-500 feet, or with single-engine aircraft flying at 100-110 mph with pump pressures and nozzle sizes adjusted to provide the 25-60 MMD micron particle size.

Great care should be taken not to fly airplanes over areas with new General Motors type cars with acrylic finishes. Helicopters should not be used over cities because of damage which may result from large particle size, above 100 microns, insecticide droplets, particularly to new automobile finishes.

Other insecticides used in controlling adult mosquitoes are listed in the 1971 Public Health Pesticides as follows (2):

Table 2. Insecticides Employed as Outdoor Ground-Applied Space Sprays

	Lb./acre	Dosage based on estimated swath width of 300 ft. Apply as mist or fog during the dusk to dawn period. Mists are usually dispersed at rates of 7 to 25 gal. per mile at a vehicle speed of 6 mph. Fogs are applied at a rate of 40 gal./hr. dispersed from a vehicle moving at this speed; occasionally at much higher rates and greater speeds. Finished formulations contain from 0.5 to 8 oz./gal. actual insecticide in oil, or, in the case of the non-thermal fog generator, in a water emulsion. Dusts also can be used. For ground ULV application, technical grade malathion is dispersed at a rate of 1 to 1.5 fl. oz./min. and a vehicle speed of 5 mph or at a rate of 2 to 3 fl. oz./min. and 10 mph.
carbaryl	0.2-1.0	
fenthion	0.01-0.1	
malathion	0.075-0.2	
naled	0.02-0.1	

FLIES

Effective fly control can be achieved only by maintaining a high level of environmental sanitation to reduce or eliminate fly breeding sources. These measures can be supplemented by insecticidal treatments, including residual sprays, impregnated fly cords, resin strips, fly baits, and space spraying. Larviciding, which is of such great importance in mosquito control, has been much less successful in fly-control programs (7).

Residual treatments. The chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticides, which were used with great success in the late 1940's, have been replaced by the organophosphorus compounds. Flies developed resistance to the chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticides such as DDT, BHC, chlordane, and dieldrin. In addition, when the chlorinated hydrocarbons were used, residues of these long-lasting insecticides often appeared in milk or meat.

At present seven organic phosphorus compounds are labeled for residual application as discussed in the 1971 Public Health Pesticides (2), and shown in Table 3 reproduced from this publication.

Impregnated fly cords. Commercially manufactured fly cords impregnated with parathion, diazinon, or ronnel have been labeled for use in dairy barns, chicken ranches, and food-handling and -processing establishments. The cords are installed at a rate of 30 linear ft. of cord per 100 ft. of floor space. This method has given effective fly control in dairies, chicken houses, and "pig parlors" for periods ranging from 6 weeks to an entire season. The use of fly cords has not been approved in all 50 states. Resistance to the chemicals in fly cords has developed in some areas.

Fly baits. Quick control of flies for a few days can be achieved by using dry fly baits containing Bomyl, diazinon, dichlorvos, malathion, naled, ronnel, or trichlorfon, and an attractant such as sugar. Dry fly baits can be used in dairy barns or outdoors near food-preparation areas. The baits are placed in trays, jar covers, or permanent bait stations at a rate of 2 or 3 oz. per 1000 ft. of floor surface and are renewed about twice a week. Liquid bait dispensers made from a chicken-watering device and a cellulose sponge have been used successfully in chicken houses. The liquid bait contains 0.1% dichlorvos or trichlorfon in 12.5% sugar solution.

Outdoor space sprays. Spray treatments are employed against flies chiefly in problem areas where residual treatments or larviciding fail to give satisfactory control. This method is frequently used at open dumps and also in disaster areas, such as stockyards where animals have been killed by flooding, or warehouses where large quantities of food have been damaged following flooding or power failure. According to the CDC 1971 Public Health Pesticides (2), six organophosphorus compounds have been labeled for outdoor space sprays: diazinon, dichlorvos, dimethoate, fenthion, malathion, and naled.

Table 3. Organophosphorus Insecticides for Use in Fly Control (2).

Type Application	Toxicant	Formulation	Remarks
		For 50 gallons of finished spray, add water to:	
	Diazinon	2 gal. 25% EC or 16# 25% WP	— Maximum strength permitted 1%. Labeled for use in dairy barns, milk rooms, and food-handling establishments, but not poultry houses.
R	dimethoate	1 gal. 50% EC	— Maximum strength permitted 1%. Can be used in dairy barns (except milk rooms), meat processing plants, and poultry houses.
E	Gardona	8# 50% WP or 6# 75% WP or 2 gal. 2# / gal. EC	— Maximum strength permitted 2%. Labeled for use in dairy barns but not poultry houses.
S			
I	malathion	2-4.5 gal. 55% EC or 32-64# 25% WP	— Maximum strength permitted 5%. Labeled for use in dairy barns, poultry houses, meat packing plants, premium grade material accepted for use in milk rooms and food-handling plants.
D			
U			
A	naled	1 gal. 50% EC	— Maximum strength permitted 1%. For use in dairy barns (except milk rooms), in food-handling establishments, and in poultry houses.
L			
	ronnel	2 gal. 25% EC or 16# 25% WP	— Maximum strength permitted 1%. For use in dairy barns, milk rooms, food processing plants, and poultry houses.
	fenthion	0.7-1.3 gal. 93% EC	— Maximum strength permitted 1.5%. Not to be used in dairy barns, poultry houses, or food processing plants.

AVOID CONTAMINATION OF HUMAN AND ANIMAL FOOD AND WATER CONTAINERS. DO NOT TREAT MILK ROOMS OR FOOD PROCESSING AREAS WHILE IN OPERATION. REMOVE ANIMALS FROM STRUCTURE DURING SPRAY OPERATION WHEN LABEL SO ADVISES.

FLEAS

Fleas are annoying, blood-sucking pests whose bites may itch intensely and cause serious discomfort to people, pets, and domestic animals. Some species, particularly the oriental rat flea (Xenopsylla cheopis), are of great importance as vectors of plague, murine typhus and other diseases.

The chlorinated hydrocarbons, particularly 10% DDT dust, have been used with great success from 1944 to 1968 to control the oriental rat flea in areas where murine typhus or plague occurred, both in the United States and overseas. However, with the development of resistance to DDT in some strains of the oriental rat, cat, and dog fleas, and the restrictions on the use of this chemical in recent years, alternate insecticides have been used.

The vegetable insecticides, rotenone and pyrethrum, continue to be the insecticides of choice in controlling fleas on kittens, cats, and puppies. Other insecticides which can be used on pets, particularly dogs, are listed in Table 4 from the 1971 CDC Public Health Pesticides (2).

Carbaryl (Sevin) dust, a carbamate insecticide, is widely used to control the oriental rat flea and wild rodent fleas, usually as 2 to 5% dusts. For control of wild rodent fleas in western United States, various formulations such as 3 ounces of 2% carbaryl dust, or 2 ounces of 5% carbaryl dust, per prairie dog burrow have given good control (2).

Table 4. Insecticides Used On Pets For Flea Control (2).

Toxicant	Formulation	Percent Concentration
carbaryl	Dip or wash	0.5
	Dust	2.0-5.0
coumaphos	Dip	0.2-0.5
	Spray	1.0
	Dust	0.5
lindane	Dust	1.0
malathion	Dip	0.25
	Spray	0.5
	Dust	4.0-5.0
pyrethrum	Spray	0.2 + 2.0
		synergist
rotenone	Dust	1.0
	Dust	1.0

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THE DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF ACUTE
PESTICIDE INTOXICATION IN MAN

G. A. Reich, M.D., M.P.H.

Pesticide poisoning is reported by the National Clearinghouse for Poison Control Centers at about 5,000-6,000, cases per year. This represents, for the most part, accidental poisoning among children. Many more cases than this occur, especially among pesticide exposed workers, but there are few reports of these. The fatality rate in pesticide poisoning is considerably higher than that seen with the more common agents in poisoning such as aspirin, tranquilizers, and birth control pills.

The incidence of pesticide poisoning varies a great deal from region to region in the U.S.A., being highest in agricultural areas and in urban centers surrounded by agricultural areas.

Poisoning at times occurs on a mass scale when flour, sugar, or the like, become contaminated with pesticides in transit or in storage, since pesticides survive the cooking and baking processes quite well. Examples of these are the food poisoning episodes of recent years in the Middle East, Columbia, and Mexico. Episodes on a much smaller scale have occurred in the U.S.A.

The Community Studies have been conducting prospective epidemiological studies of workers exposed to pesticides to determine if their health is being adversely affected. In addition to this, our Studies provide diagnostic and therapeutic assistance in their local areas to Doctors handling cases of acute poisoning. Most of our reports to date have come from south Texas and south Florida which represent primarily cases of individual poisoning but at times are of group poisoning.

In south Texas, the incidence of poisoning increased for several years, then declined only to rise again. Most cases occurred in June and July during the period of greatest pesticide use. Most cases were among teen-agers and young adults who were employed by farmers and spray pilots to assist in mixing and applying pesticides. Parathion and methyl parathion were the usual agents, and the route of exposure was almost always dermal. Very few deaths occurred, even though pesticides are by far and away the leading cause of poisoning in this area.

The signs and symptoms observed in these cases indicate that a variety of biochemical and physiological functions are altered by pesticides. The central nervous system, cardiovascular system, gastrointestinal system, and musculoskeletal system are the most obviously affected in pesticide poisoning. The diagnosis may be difficult, because of this variety of signs and symptoms which are suggestive of other conditions as well as pesticide poisoning.

In south Florida, poisoning reflects three sorts of circumstances:
(1) accidental ingestion by 1 to 2 year old children in and around the house;
(2) accidental dermal exposure in occupational exposed workers; and
(3) suicidal ingestion in middle-aged to older adults. Numerous pesticides have caused deaths in this area, ranging from old types like Paris Green up to newer pesticides like Zectran. In Florida, pesticide poisoning is a year round phenomenon rather than coinciding with the season of greatest agricultural use of pesticides. This is due to the importance of the accidental cases among children and the suicidal cases among adults. The highest death rates are among adults, but this represents the fact that such a large proportion of these are suicidal. The agents of most importance are the organophosphates, especially parathion, but numerous compounds singly or in combination have been involved. There have been several homicidal attempts with pesticides too, most of which have been successful. In this area, the leading cause of death from poisoning among children is pesticides.

How important pesticide poisoning is in your area will depend upon several factors already noted. Determining what the true incidence is in any particular area may be difficult, because of errors in diagnosis and the lack of an effective system of reporting. Such poisoning is, however, preventable -- though suicidal cases present particular problems.

When one considers that only about 10% of the true incidence of poisoning in the U.S.A. is reported, and that the Poison Control Centers report over 100,000 cases per year, it is apparent that poisoning (not just with pesticides) represents an important public health problem.

HOUSEHOLD USE OF PESTICIDES

Frank S. Lisella, Ph.D.

Introduction

Some common household uses of pesticides include ridding homes of insects or rodents, defleaing or delousing pets, and destroying garden pests. Thousands of pesticide formulations are sold through retail outlets for use in the home environment and in garden areas. These chemicals, when properly used, are desirable additions to our armamentarium of technical agents which are used to maintain and improve our standard of living. On the other hand, pesticides can present a hazard to people, pets, wildlife, and desirable plant species if they are not used in accordance with the appropriate recommendations.

Pesticide Products

In choosing a pesticide to apply to eliminate a pest species, there are a number of factors which must be considered--among these are the nature of the pest, location of infestation, toxicity of the product to be applied, and the ease of application of the product.

Some information with respect to the use of the common pesticides for the control of household pests is summarized in the following tables:

RODENTICIDES

RODENTICIDES	PEST SPECIES	COMMENT
Warfarin	Norway Rats	Anticoagulants - must be available to rats at least 2 weeks
Pindone		
Diphacinone	Roof Rats	
Fumarin		
Norbormide	Norway Rats	Ineffective against mice
Red Squill	Norway Rats Mice	Emetic Mice - Tracking Dust

INSECTICIDES (Household Use)

INSECTICIDE	PEST SPECIES	COMMENT
Pyrethrins	F L I E S	Quick knockdown
Malathion		5% maximum concentration Exterior use - vegetation and wall surfaces - resting areas
Ronnel		1% maximum concentration Exterior use only
Malathion	S P I D E R S	2-3% water-based spray - harborage areas 5% dust
Chlordane		2% water-based spray 5% dust
Chlordane	Ants	10% dust - runways, cracks in concrete, garbage pails, etc.
Propoxur	C	1% spray - odor and staining reported 2% bait
Dichlorvos (DDVP)	O	0.5% spray 1.9% bait
Kepone	K	0.125% bait - aging a problem
Malathion	R	5.0% spray or dust - odors
Dursban	A	0.5% spray - PCO use only - 1971
Fenthion	C	2.0% spray - PCO use only - 1971
Diazinon	H	0.5% spray (coarse)
	E	1.0% dust
	S	Spray treatment - baseboards, cabinets under refrigerators, stoves
		1% spray, 2-5% dust - PCO use only - 1971

Safety Practices

A pesticide should be used only when it has been established that a need exists. When a product is selected for use, it should be the least toxic chemical which will achieve the desired results. The following precautions should be noted:

General

1. Read the label each time the pesticide is used and follow the stated instructions label exactly.
2. Keep the pesticide in a plainly labelled container, preferably the one in which it was bought. Never transfer pesticides to unlabelled or mislabelled containers.

Before Application

3. When handling, mixing, or applying pesticides, avoid inhaling dust and fumes and avoid getting materials on the skin.
4. When directed by the label, wear protective clothing, such as goggles, gloves, aprons, respirators, and masks.
5. Check sprayers before each use, to make certain that hose connections are tight and that valves do not leak.
6. Check the label of the product before using, so that you know what to do quickly if there is an accident. If clothing or skin becomes contaminated, wash the skin and change to clean clothing. If the slightest illness appears, call a doctor or get the patient to a hospital immediately.
7. The very few people who suspect they may have a special sensitivity to pesticides should consult an allergist, and, if necessary, take steps to avoid any exposure to the offending agent.

During Application

8. If indoors, work in a well-ventilated area, to avoid inhalation of fumes.
9. If outdoors, do not spray into the wind.
10. Cover food and water containers when using pesticides around areas for livestock or pets.
11. When mixing or using inflammable chemicals, be especially careful to avoid the fire hazards caused by smoking, defective wiring, and open flames.
12. In applying pesticides to food plants (a) use the proper dose recommended for the purpose, and (b) allow the full recommended time between applying the pesticide and harvesting the plant to avoid having a harmful amount of pesticides remaining on food to be eaten. Do not plant food crops near ornamental plants which are to be sprayed.

After Application

13. Get rid of used pesticide containers in a way that will not leave the package of leftover contents as a hazard to people--particularly children--or to animals.
14. Wash hands thoroughly after using pesticides and before eating or smoking.
15. Change clothing after each day's operations and bathe thoroughly.

Pesticides should be stored in a locked cabinet or storage area and out of the reach of children, pets, and people who might not be able to understand their danger. The storage area or cabinet should be dry and well ventilated. The chemicals should never be placed in empty food or drink containers of any kind.

Environmental Sanitation

Proper environmental improvement measures must be associated with the application of all pesticides. For example, in order to achieve adequate control of rodent populations, it is necessary that all harborage and sources of food be removed. Structural harborage, such as small protected enclosures under cabinets, shelves, and stairs should be eliminated. The proper storage of usable materials reduces the food and harborage available to rodents to a minimum.

The improper storage of refuse (garbage and rubbish) and of food products invites insect and rodent infestations. Refuse storage facilities should include enough containers to hold all garbage and rubbish that normally accumulates between collection days. A satisfactory refuse container should be rust-resistant, water-tight and not exceed 32 gallons in capacity. All garbage should be drained and wrapped in newspaper prior to being placed in the refuse containers. The containers should be washed periodically to further prevent fly, rodent, and odor problems.

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DISPOSAL OF WASTE PESTICIDES: PROBLEMS AND SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

H. C. Johnson and L. P. Wallace, Ph.D.

One of the many problems encountered in the disposal of our nation's solid wastes is the handling of toxic and/or hazardous materials including pesticides. Within EPA's Office of Research and Monitoring, the Solid Waste Research Office (SWR) has been and is presently studying effective means of handling and disposing of these hazardous wastes, particularly pesticides. Because of their toxicity, some pesticides must be detoxified before any disposal or reclamation processes can be safely applied, while other pesticides can be disposed of directly. Emphasis in this presentation will be centered on those solid waste management systems which are applicable to, or hold promise for, the disposal of pesticides and pesticide containers.

Land Disposal Methods

The sanitary landfill is currently regarded as the most important land disposal method and consequently, considerable research is directed towards improving this technique and assuring that the environment will be properly protected when this method is used. If correctly located and engineered, one of the most favorable qualities of the sanitary landfill is its ability to receive heterogeneous solid waste loads. These loads vary from being relatively innocuous and chemically inert to being putrescible and even toxic. It is, however, most important that the requirements given in the following definition be met in order for a facility to be considered a "sanitary landfill":

Sanitary landfilling is a method of disposing of solid waste on land without creating nuisances or hazards to public health or safety, by utilizing the principles of engineering to confine the refuse to the smallest practical area, to reduce it to the smallest practical volume, and to cover it with a layer of earth at the conclusion of each day's operation or at such more frequent intervals as may be necessary.

For every sanitary landfill, and particularly those receiving such toxic materials as pesticide residues, it is important to assure that there is no contamination of nearby ground and surface waters. A Solid Waste Research sponsored study is being performed by researchers at the University of Illinois on the hydrology of several solid waste disposal sites. Data from the study are useful in evaluating the factors that control

ground water and landfill leachate movement. Five different hydro-geologic environments were selected for the study and piezometers were installed in drill holes, strategically located to define fluid potential distribution, and water samples were taken for chemical analysis. In addition to total dissolved solids and chlorides, which are good indicators of leaching, a host of chemical determinations were done on those samples. The results were used to predict the best physical placement of landfills to avoid leaching. No pesticides were detected in the leachate during the time of the study.

At one in-house project, Solid Waste Research is operating a field-scale landfill in Walton, Kentucky, to further study leachate movement and gas formation. The cell being used has been lined with clay and plastic to assure total collection of rainfall or applied water. Information from this study will give further guidance in the safe operation of sanitary landfills for hazardous materials such as pesticides.

Another land disposal system has been under investigation in Alkali Lake, Oregon. Under the sponsorship of Solid Waste Research, scientists at the Environmental Health Sciences Center at Oregon State University have been studying the feasibility of transporting the waste liquor and by-products from 2, 4-D and 2, 4, 5-T manufacturing process to an arid area in Oregon where they are being diluted and applied to the land for natural degradation. The 55-gallon drums used for transporting are chemically cleaned, compressed, and buried or baled and reused as scrap metal. The theory behind the project is that herbicides and pesticides do not have an infinite life in the environment. In every instance where persistence of pesticides in soil has been studied, it has been found that the chemical disappears within acceptable time limits (2-3 years) to a level of little biological significance. The factors causing the disappearance are photochemical decomposition, chemical decomposition, microbiological degradation, and physical factors such as adsorption, volatilization, or leaching. The physical factors, however, only take the pesticides from one place to another, they do not really make them disappear.

Data from trial applications at the site have supported the degradation theory. Application to small plots have shown that very little vertical or lateral movement occurs during the degradation period which has been twenty months for 60 percent degradation. It is planned to start using subsoil injection routinely for the waste liquor presently being stored at the site.

In conjunction with this study, the Oregon State University group is also investigating pesticide container cleanup in Klamath Falls, Oregon. Attempts will be made to chemically clean the containers to such a level that they can be accepted for baling and placement in an electric furnace for scrap metal recovery. Facilities for this study have been constructed and cleanup investigations are presently underway. Liquids from the cleanup operation will either be used as a pesticide or disposed of at the Alkali Lake site. In order to make the container cleanup easier, the researchers have taken an active role in persuading pesticide users

to rinse their containers with water or with the formulation they prepare, adding the rinse back to the prepared formulation. Laboratory tests have shown that rinsing an emptied container three times with several quarts of water reduces the residual pesticide content by 90 percent, affords the user a financial saving of \$1/6.5 ounces if the pesticide costs \$20/gallon, and greatly facilitates the container cleanup process.

Oceanic disposal of solid wastes, including pesticides and other toxic materials, may be an alternative to the sanitary landfill method; however, there are many questions to be answered before the Solid Waste Research Office could endorse ocean disposal. The report from a contract with the Applied Oceanography Branch of the Dillingham Corporation, San Diego, California, described the nature and magnitude of present ocean disposal practices. In connection with the study, on-site surveys were conducted at 16 United States cities situated on or near the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts, and the Gulf of Mexico.

Data from the study reveal that some 62 million tons of waste are being disposed of at sea each year at a cost of \$37 million, including dredging spoils but excluding outdated munitions. Methods employed for disposal consist primarily of transporting the wastes in bulk or barrels aboard self-propelled or towed barges. The majority of wastes are disposed of in bulk form and discharged while the barge is underway. In several cases, highly toxic chemical wastes have been carried to sea aboard merchant ships as deck cargo. The containers were then discharged in undetermined areas once the ship was 300 miles from land. However, bulk industrial wastes are usually transported in tank barges certified for ocean waters by the United States Coast Guard. In addition, United States Coast Guard regulations regarding the bulk shipment of chemicals by water must be adhered to. The Sparkling Waters is just such a barge especially built to handle insecticides and other toxic chemical wastes off the New York coast.

Recently, a final report was received from a contract at Foster D. Snell, Inc. in Florham Park, New Jersey on conditions necessary for decontamination and combustion of organic pesticides and pesticide containers. Work on this project has included:

1. Determining the temperature and rate at which pesticides burn in their pure form while testing the combustion gases for CO, CO₂, H₂O, and intermediate organics.
2. Incorporating the same pesticides in a mass of material such as sawdust, paper, burlap, cloth, polyethylene, and wood, and investigating the burning temperature and rate and determining the combustion products.
3. Low cost chemicals including nitrates and chlorates were incorporated in the pesticide and the pesticide-material mixtures above to facilitate decomposition.

The report indicated the structural and compositional requirements necessary for combustible pesticide containers and the possible use of polyethylene liners to aid combustion. It was shown during the course of the project that representative pesticides were virtually volatilized or sublimed when incinerated unless a binder was present to increase the residence time in the flame. By using polyethylene, which under heating or combustion conditions softens or degrades to products of lower molecular weights, the advantages of a liner and a binder were obtained with one material and the pesticides studied could be essentially destroyed at temperatures normally achieved by burning wood, paper, cardboard, etc.

In all the thermal studies performed, less than five milligram amounts of the pure pesticide chemical were used. Since some undesirable emissions were detected under these conditions, bench and field studies with larger samples need to be investigated before definite conclusions can be drawn.

Destructive distillation (pyrolysis) of pesticides shows great promise as a detoxification reduction method. It should leave an easily handled residue and should thermally degrade effluent gases to acceptable limits. Additional research is needed to verify the possibilities of this method.

A great deal of concern is being directed to recycling of waste material. Some of the present barriers to increased reclamation and recycling are technological in nature and others are economic. Success in overcoming these barriers has the dual advantage of reducing the amount of waste to be disposed of while conserving the nation's natural resources. Cellulosic wastes, including wood, bark, sawdust, oat hulls, corn cobs, bagasse, and other agricultural residues are generated in truly prodigious quantities. Little, if any, significant portion of these wastes is beneficially used and, since they are commonly burned, cellulosic wastes often contribute to air pollution in areas where they accumulate. Under a research grant, the Institute of Forest Products, University of Washington, in Seattle, is developing a unique means for utilizing cellulosic wastes which will at the same time allow safer and more efficient application of pesticides to the soil.

Some common properties of the wood and agricultural wastes are that they consist predominantly of polymeric cellulose macromolecules; they contain an abundance of replaceable hydrogen atoms, and all are biodegradable. Since these waste materials are polymers containing replaceable hydrogen atoms it should be possible to attach pesticides to these substrates in the same way that acetic acid, for example, becomes attached to cellulose in the manufacture of cellulose acetate. Research has shown that pesticides can be attached to such solid waste as sawdust, bark, and lignin by means of ester linkages. Herbicides have been combined with natural as well as synthetic polymers. The herbicides used were 2, 4-D, 2, 4, 5-T, 4(2, 4, 5)-TB, and Dalapon. It was found that each of these polymeric combinations prevented the germination of certain seeds longer than the herbicide alone under controlled laboratory

conditions. Similar results have been obtained in field plots using herbicides and in Costa Rica using the insecticide carbofuran. In the Costa Rican study, it was found that a treatment with the pesticide-polymer combination was effective for eight weeks as opposed to one week for the pesticide alone. Plans are to repeat this study in Puerto Rico where environmental conditions are quite different.

The practical implication of the ability to chemically bond pesticides to cellulosic materials is that very large quantities of cellulosic wastes, so treated, could be utilized as a mulch for gardens and in agriculture. The pesticide in the mulch would be released in controlled fashion with distinct advantages over present procedures for applying pesticides to soils. Now, pesticides usually have rather short useful lives because they may be degraded by bacteria to inactive metabolites, or washed by rainwater into the subsoil where they are inaccessible to pests they are intended to control. Also, and more important from the public health standpoint, this leaching into the subsoil often means that some rather stable pesticides, or their degradation products, find their way into potable water supplies.

In contrast, if the pesticide were chemically combined with the polymeric solid waste, its useful life should be prolonged; attack by bacteria should be reduced; and the pesticide should not be leachable into the subsoil and hence will not pollute streams and rivers. As the solid waste-pesticide mulch lies on and in the soil, it will gradually decompose, continually releasing the active pesticide over a long period of time. With this technique the problems and potential errors of measuring and diluting liquid concentrates are eliminated. Spillages of solids are, of course, less likely than liquid leakages and are easier to rectify when they occur. Controlled releases of the pesticides may also allow lower dosages and fewer applications.

Another very important benefit from this project is the prospect it may hold for development and use of extremely short-lived biodegradable pesticides which, in combination with solid waste polymeric substrates, would be sufficiently stable for practical use. For example, many organophosphorous pesticides are liquid and are too dermally toxic to permit their use by anyone other than an expert. Combinations of these materials would perhaps render them safe, while not destroying their biological activity. The currently "unuseable" pesticides are often effective at much lower dosages than the superficially less hazardous products that are not used in relatively massive amounts.

Composting of municipal and agricultural refuse is not widely used as a means for solid waste disposal in the United States. However, there are several compost plants in operation and one may reasonably expect to see the continued composting of solid waste on limited scale in areas where the product is marketable. A research grant to the Western Research Laboratory of the National Canners Association, Berkeley, California, is supporting a study of the fate of insecticides in composted agricultural wastes. A substantial part of the fruits and vegetables received for

preservation by canning or freezing is discarded as solid wastes. That portion of the raw product which is discarded--vegetable skin and rind--generally has the highest level of insecticide residue, and this fact has limited the use of such material as animal feed, and it also raises questions about possible harmful effects of spreading composted cannery wastes on agricultural lands. This concern is especially justified if toxic degradation or transformation products remain in the compost mixture.

The Cannery Association study aims to obtain a better understanding of the mechanism by which insecticides are degraded by microbial or chemical action during aerobic composting, and also to obtain information which will make it possible to dispose of waste materials containing concentrated insecticide residues without hazard to public health. Insecticides selected for the study represent examples of the three principal classes: chlorinated hydrocarbons, organophosphates, and carbamates. The selection of specific insecticides was based upon the extent of usage in agricultural products, variety of chemical structure, and availability of reliable analytical methods. These included: dieldrin; parathion; Diazinon; p, p' -DDT; pentachlorophenol, and with further studies planned for Sevin and Zineb.

During the study, breakdown products of several insecticides have been identified and the varying effects of batch-type and thermophilic composting processes have been noted. The summary in a recent progress report contained the following information:

1. Concentration of Diazinon and parathion rapidly declined in both composting processes with the thermophilic process being the more efficient. Breakdown products identified for Diazinon were oxodiazinon and sulphotepp. Those identified for parathion were aminoparathion, p -aminophenol, and p -nitrophenol.
2. Continuous thermophilic composting caused some reduction in DDT whereas the batch process had little effect. No breakdown products have been identified.
3. Dieldrin was more efficiently degraded in the batch process and none of its breakdown products have been identified.
4. Following the active compost period (120 days), the curing or aging phase (180 days) of the process had little or no effect on the insecticides.

The consideration of pesticide disposal is one facet of hazardous waste disposal. In Section 212 of the Resource Recovery Act, Congress commissioned a study on the feasibility of strategically locating national disposal sites to safely process hazardous materials. The first phase of this two-year study has been initiated through a contract to the Booz-Allen Applied Research Company. Their responsibility is to make a survey and list the quantities, location, generation rate, and present disposal practices of our nation's hazardous wastes. Throughout all the phases of this study, pesticides will be given particular attention in hopes that some safe and effective means of their disposal can be developed.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE PRACTICE IN THE MANUFACTURE,
FORMULATION, AND PACKAGING OF PESTICIDES

Clyde M. Berry, Ph.D.

In this presentation I shall define industrial hygiene as that art and science directed toward the anticipation, detection, evaluation, control and continued evaluation of untoward physiological response potentially associated with the manufacture, formulation and packaging of pesticides.

To establish a point of embarkation on a discussion of this kind a number of assumptions can be made. These are offered with no sense of chronological occurrence, of severity, of associated hazard or of feasibility.

1. Too much of anything may be deleterious to physical, mental or emotional well being.
2. Prudence indicates a need for a plant material balance. Pound for pound, ton for ton, the amount of total product, by-products and waste, should equate with the amount of all incoming ingredients.
3. A flow chart is an indispensable navigational aid in traversing the labyrinths of any plant product.
4. It is still necessary to "inquire locally". Ask questions, in-plant, about what happens, where, how and when.
5. Management may not know that operational changes are routine that are not a part of procedural specifications as detailed in process manuals.
6. Most chemicals are of technical grade and are usually not pure chemical compounds.
7. Many (most?) products and by-products are reaction mixtures.
8. People are required to build, maintain and operate equipment.
9. Machines do not get tired, become poisoned, make fewer mistakes.
10. Few engineers design with worker health and safety aspects taking priority over cost/performance.
11. New legislation (Example: Occupational Safety & Health Act of 1970) is going to force a re-ordering of priorities.
12. Inertia/tradition/pride can inhibit adoption of improved work patterns or process changes.
13. Legal, Public, and Employee Relations Departments are exquisitely sensitive with respect to safety and health verbiage.
14. Labor-management conflicts will sometimes be over safety/health items when these are not the basic issues at all.

Pesticides are used because they affect protoplasm, plant or animal. They can, and do, affect humans, usually deleteriously. To protect the in-plant workers some general principles can be stated:

1. Keep it inside the unit.
2. If it gets out, keep it as confined as possible.
3. Try to put it back in the process, if feasible.
4. Dispose of contaminated materials and wastes before they get into the general environment - and do it safely.
5. Keep it off (and out of) the worker.

One needs to know the toxicities of the materials to which a worker may be exposed, the clinical effects that may be produced, the threshold limits of exposure, how these can be measured, and the levels to which a worker may be exposed.

Some workers perform their job at a single location. Others move about. To make professional judgements on hazard potential it may be necessary to make three types of measurements:

1. At the source
2. In the general workroom air
3. The individual worker's exposure

Puddings may be proved by eating them. A successful industrial hygiene approach requires similar clinical proof of absence of injury, acute and chronic. There should be a plant physician, full time or on call. His contributions can be roughly categorized as follows:

1. Know the toxic effects of the materials.
2. Do pre-placement examinations to screen out susceptibles and avoid exacerbating existing conditions.
3. Be prepared to handle emergencies.
4. Do routine physical examinations.
5. Advise on transfers.
6. Authorize all returns to work after illness absences.
7. Maintain records that are epidemiologically useful.
8. Routinely tour the plant.

An industrial hygienist should be consulted early in the design of a facility for manufacturing, blending or packaging pesticides. Prevention, true prevention, begins here. Besides contact with toxic materials there are other aspects of worker exposure to be considered. Some of these would be:

1. Trauma
2. Heat extremes
3. Radiation (ionizing and non-ionizing)
4. Noise
5. Vibration
6. Personal services: (as locker rooms and lunch rooms)
7. Ergonomics
8. Possibility of fire or explosion
9. Fatigue

The industrial hygienist will view each step in the process, each machine, each job against the backdrop of general control measures and their applicability. These would include:

1. Isolation
2. Remote control
3. General ventilation
4. Local exhaust ventilation
5. Enclosure
6. Personal protective equipment
7. Personal hygiene
8. Good housekeeping

Specific details will vary from plant to plant but the approach may be illustrated by viewing a hypothetical plant along the lines of the above. Let us assume that a large plant is involved which makes a pesticide that is highly toxic, can be absorbed via inhalation, ingestion and skin contact. It is a liquid. It is blended with a powder to a low percentage of active ingredient and then packaged in bags, boxes and drums. These are warehoused awaiting orders from jobbers and shipping is by rail and truck. On a departmental basis one might have industrial hygiene interests as follows:

Purchasing

Who are the suppliers?

How much of each material is purchased?

Will it be delivered in bulk or packaged?

Has the supplier provided toxicity information adequate for the safety data sheet as required by law?

Is it appropriately labeled?

Receiving

If tank trucks, tank cars or barges, how is it transferred?

Will inclement weather produce (or exacerbate) problems?

Do the attendants have protective gear?

Are eye-wash and deluge showers present?

Is the area included in a disaster plan?

Can pneumatic conveying solve dust problems?

Would pressure transfer be preferred over pumping?

Storage

Are the tanks reasonably protected against damage by mobile equipment?

Do dikes (large enough to hold entire contents) surround the tanks?

If storage is inside is the lighting and ventilation adequate?

Is a regular check made for leaks and spills?

Are emergency preparations adequate? (lighting, personal protective equipment, neutralizing chemicals, etc.)

Manufacturing

Are the pumps of a type to minimize leakage?

Have covers and exhaust ventilation been provided at reaction vessels?

If the reaction is exothermic and could "run away" have quench tanks been provided?

Is the equipment durable, corrosion resistant and accessible for inspection and cleaning?

Has provision been made for equipment handling during turn-around?

Is there adequate general ventilation - and with tempered make-up air?

Are casals kept out of high risk areas?

Has suitable personal protective equipment been furnished the operators? Is it kept clean and properly maintained?

Is housekeeping maintained at a high level?

Are hand washing facilities available and used prior to eating and toileting?

Is eating and drinking in the workplace forbidden?

Can a batch method be changed to continuous mixing?

Is the actual blending done in an enclosed vessel, under negative pressure, with well designed hoods and ductwork to take away dusts, fumes, gases and vapors?

Are respirators, gas masks and/or other appropriate personal protective devices provided?

Do the workers wear clean clothing daily?

Packaging

Can it be more completely automated?

Are bottles checked for cracks and loose caps?

Is there any exterior contamination of bags or drums?

Will the labels meet ICC and other regulatory agency requirements - size, location, wording, coding?

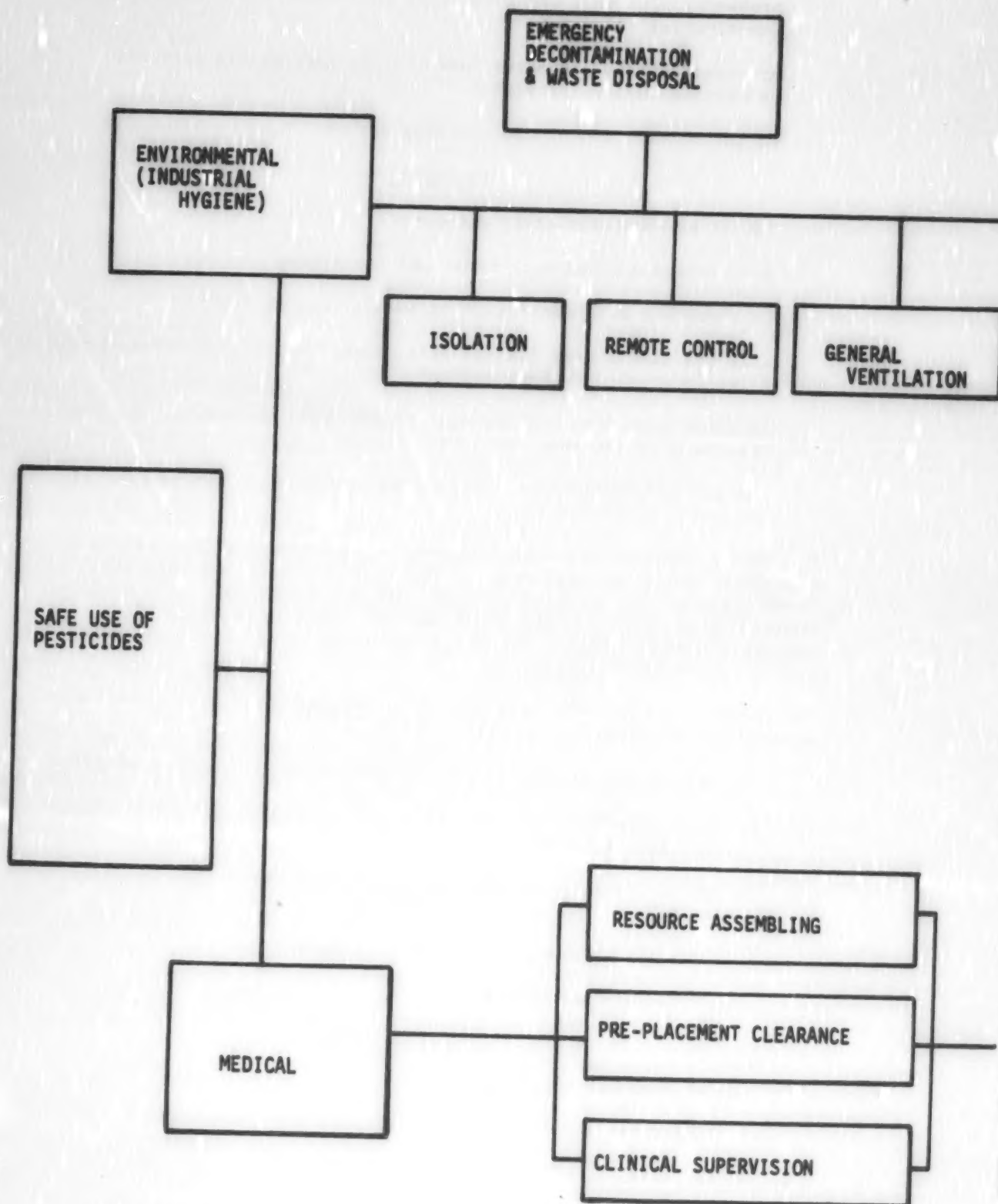
Is there a printed warning against container re-use, except when returned for the same service?

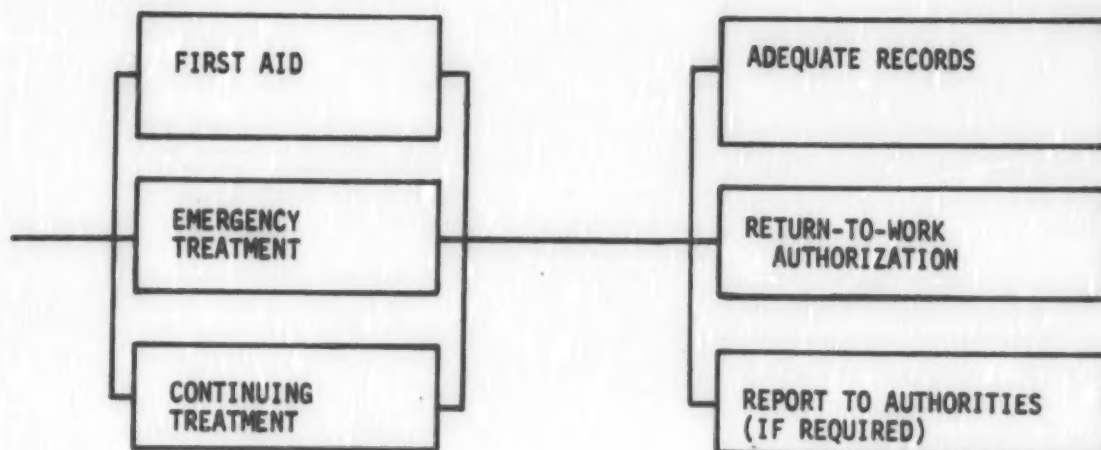
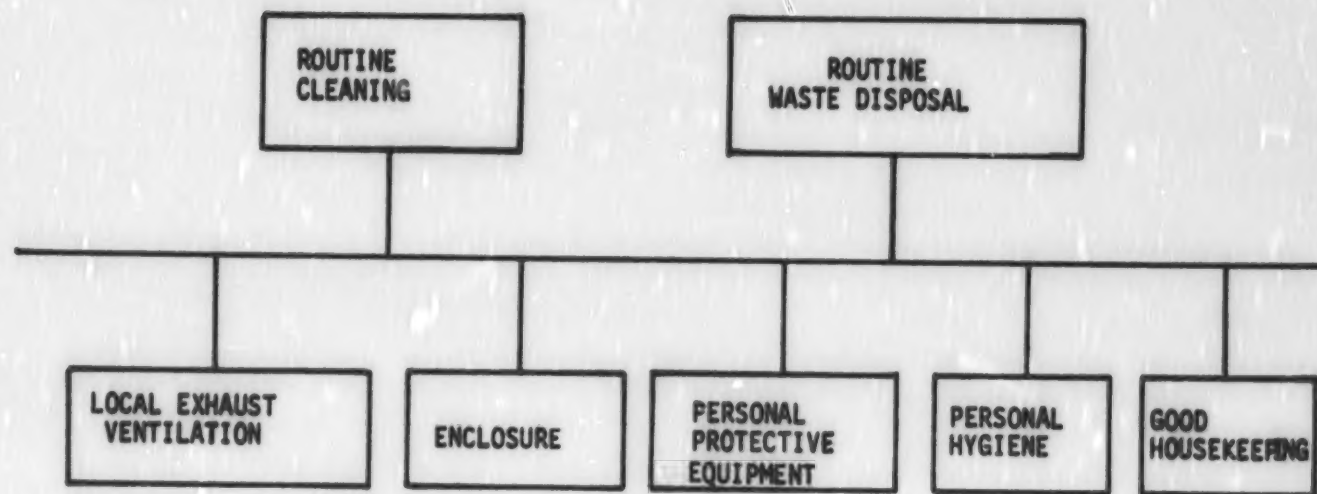
Are all air contaminants controlled by effective ventilation at the point of discharge?

It will be apparent that the foregoing are just some of the points an industrial hygienist will keep in mind. He would extend this into the warehousing of the packaged product. He would similarly view shipping where he would seek maximum mechanization, minimum potential for container damage, applaud the use of experienced truck drivers, discourage mixed cargoes, etc.

The industrial hygienist will also find himself to be a candidate for service in additional capacities:

1. Advise the applicator on safe use of the formulated product.
2. Back-stop the physician if a Poison Information Center calls for information.
3. Participate in employee education programs on how to work safely.
4. Work with plant personnel and management on
 - a) Salvage operations
 - b) Waste disposal
 - c) Air pollution
 - d) Water pollution
 - e) Disaster planning
5. Share his knowledge and experiences
 - a) With other industrial hygienists
 - b) Physicians
 - c) Safety engineers
 - d) Regulatory personnel
 - e) Architects and design/industrial/process engineers





MINIMIZING FISH AND WILDLIFE LOSSES DUE TO PESTICIDES

William E. Martin

Fish and wildlife are the barometers of our natural environment. If they are in trouble, we are in trouble.

I. Types of fish and wildlife losses due to pesticides

A. Direct or primary losses

1) Thallium/Eagles/Wyoming

A number of bald eagles and golden eagles are believed to have fed on antelope treated with thallium sulfate in Wyoming. Twenty-two of these birds are known to have died from thallium poisoning.

2) Asodrin/Birds/Arizona

At least 4,000 birds, 50% of which were dove and quail, were killed with Asodrin following its use to control pink bollworm in Arizona cotton fields.

3) Arsenic/Deer/Tennessee

Eleven deer, including some does carrying fawns, and some small game died from feeding on forage in an area treated with an arsenical herbicide to control Johnson grass.

4) Toxaphene/Fish/Nevada

Fish were killed after exposure to toxaphene used as a cattle dip to control scabbies.

5) Aldrin/Game Birds and Small Mammals/Illinois

Aldrin used for Japanese beetle control caused mortality within 3 weeks. Meadowlarks, robins, brown thrashers, starlings and grackles were virtually eliminated.

Populations of pheasants, quails, moles, shrews, and muskrats appeared to have taken severe losses.

6) Zinc Phosphide/Geese/California

At least 455 wild geese died from eating zinc phosphide-treated oat groats applied from mouse control on leased land at Tule Lake.

7) Fenthion/Songbirds/North Dakota

As many as 5,000 songbirds succumbed following a mosquito control application of fenthion in North Dakota. The spraying was done at the peak of a warbler migration; thus, exposing many more birds than would normally be affected.

8) Heptachlor/Bird and Small Mammals/Southeast

Early fire ant eradication efforts resulted in numerous incidents of losses of cottontail rabbits, bobwhite, other small game and many songbirds throughout the Southeastern United States.

B. Indirect or food chain losses

1) Diazinon/Grasshoppers/Fish

Grasshoppers treated with Diazinon hopped into streams during death throes. Fish gorged themselves on the insects and were subsequently poisoned.

2) Dieldrin/Aquatic Producers/Fish/Bald Eagles

Dead bald eagles known to have fed on fish containing dieldrin from the aquatic food supply had sufficiently high brain residue levels to indict dieldrin as the cause of death.

C. Losses through incapacitation

1) Mirex/Blue Crab and Shrimp

Very small quantities of mirex cause disorientation in certain crustaceans. The estuarine ecosystem is such that even slightly disabled individuals become easy prey.

2) Cholinesterase Inhibition in Birds

Birds depend heavily on their ability to react quickly to external stimuli when feeding and in escaping predators. When their nervous systems are not functioning properly they are severely handicapped.

D. Biological magnification/phenomenon/reproductive failure

- 1) DDT/Bald Eagles, Ospreys, Brown Pelicans, et al. DDT has been demonstrated to move through various food chains with increasing concentration as it is translocated upward through the trophic levels. Sublethal concentrations have been implicated in reproductive failures caused by physiological disruption leading to eggshell thinning in many species of birds at or near the top of aquatic food chains.

- 2) DDT/Lake Trout

Trout in Lake George, New York, continued to concentrate DDT in sac fry egg lipids until the last part of the sac was absorbed; at this point there was sufficient toxicant released in a single dose to cause death.

E. Habitat changes resulting from pest control efforts

- 1) Loss of food and cover for wildlife results from killing large tracts of sagebrush to "reclaim" rangelands.
- 2) Forest insect control spraying may seriously reduce food supply of canopy feeding songbirds.
- 3) Aquatic weed control may enhance the habitat for some organisms and make it intolerable for others.

II. Why losses occur

- 1) Monoculture croplands with related build-up of pests and need for pesticides.
- 2) Excessive application of pesticides ("Dressing-up" the edges).
- 3) Effects of pesticides are unknown prior to application (New "use-patterns" of established chemicals).
- 4) Pesticide applied to other than target area (Improper guidance; drift).
5. Effects may not be obvious immediately after application, but develop with time (Subacute physiological damage).
- 6) Pesticide known to have toxic effect, but alternatives are not available (Mosquito control using parathion because mosquitoes are resistant to other chemicals).
- 7) Industrial discharge or accidental spillage (Settling pond overflow; broken containers; improper handling of bulk).
- 8) Runoff (Application made prior to heavy rain or on steep or eroded slopes).
- 9) Improper disposal (Equipment washed out in streams; containers used for other purposes; dumping).

III. Who should be responsible for mitigating fish and wildlife losses

A. Manufacturers and distributors

- 1) Demonstration of efficacy and safety.
- 2) Extensive testing prior to marketing new products or methods.
- 3) Development and selling practices in the interest of long term benefits rather than immediate profit.

B. Federal and State Government agencies

- 1) Federal and State registration of chemicals and methods of use.
- 2) On-site regulation of accepted use patterns.
- 3) Field appraisals of non-target effects under operational conditions.
- 4) Monitoring of invertebrates, fish, wildlife, soil, water, vegetation, etc.
- 5) Technical assistance to manufacturers and prime users, and education of the general public.

C. Universities and associated organizations

- 1) Safe use and adverse environmental effects should be standard parts of any academic training in economic use of pesticides.
- 2) Education of the public a primary task.

D. Users

- 1) Choose the most selective chemical for the problem.
- 2) Read the label and act accordingly.

IV. Sources of information needed for forecasting potential fish and wildlife hazards

- 1) ID_{50} , LC_{50} , et al data from laboratory testing.
- 2) Simulated field studies under controlled conditions.
- 3) Field appraisals conducted under operational conditions.
- 4) Short term monitoring projects.
- 5) Feedback and extensive exchange of information between knowledgeable individuals and agencies.
- 6) Crystal Ball.

FUTURE TRENDS IN CHEMICAL AND NONCHEMICAL METHODS FOR PEST CONTROL (Safer?)

L.A. Richardson, Ph.D.

Insect pests are responsible for vast economic losses in the production, processing, distribution, and storage of food, fiber, and forest products. They assist in the transmission of diseases in animals, plants, and man, create intolerable annoyance problems, and effectively destroy items of beauty as well as those of man's basic needs. The annual economic loss due to insect activity over the period 1951-1960, has been estimated at 6.8 billion dollars. Consequently it might seem ideal to eradicate all destructive insects. However, while insects constitute one of man's most formidable enemies, they are essential in our complex ecological system. Insects function in the pollination of many useful and ornamental plants and act as parasites and predators where they no doubt aid in reducing the potential transmission of diseases. In addition, experience has shown that single species eradication programs are successful only in limited geographical areas, usually are expensive, and are only temporary. Thus, the eradication of all insect pests is not only undesirable but, currently impossible.

Since insect species are both beneficial and harmful, the "balance of nature" philosophy is often suggested as the appropriate way of life. Insect pests at various stages in their life cycles, are subjected to disease, starvation, desiccation, natural enemies, and adverse environmental factors, all of which limit their reproduction potential. However, insects have great adaptability and readily adjust to adverse ecological conditions; develop resistance to diseases and man-made control methods; frequently tolerate parasitic infestations for sufficient periods of time to complete their mission and reproduce; and are, in most cases,

highly mobile. It is currently estimated that 150-200 insect species frequently cause serious damage and that an additional 400-500 species may create problems from time to time. Thus in a man-insect confrontation, waged on a live-and-let-live basis, man is hopelessly outclassed.

Economic and cultural patterns, together with the requirements of a constantly increasing population, greatly complicate the development of pest management programs. Increased agricultural production must be accomplished on an ever decreasing percentage of the land area and the products therefrom transported, stored, and processed for use by high density urban populations. These two factors provide additional advantages to the insects. The shrinking rural area necessitates a high production density of specific crops and virtually eliminates many tillage practices useful in insect control. Simultaneously, through the assurance of a recurring and ample food supply in an area where little mobility is required, the potential for such crop-specific insects to reach devastating numbers is greatly enhanced. Specifically designed equipment and facilities of large capacity are necessary for the transportation, storage, and processing of agricultural products in order to supply densely populated urban areas. Such facilities and equipment provide a localized, constant, and ample food supply for insects and thus ideal destruction and reproduction potentials.

Densely populated areas create additional conditions which provide advantages to the insects. The potential for disease transmission, sensitization, allergic responses and general annoyance are greater in urban and recreational areas. Crowded conditions frequently create problems in waste disposal and general sanitation practices resulting in optimum conditions for insect reproduction.

In order for man to exist in a world where insects appear to have the advantage, it is necessary to modify this "balance of nature." Historically, both physical and chemical methods have been used, with the methods of choice being dependent upon economics, availability, and efficacy. Within the last thirty years

chemical insecticides have been the principal means of effective insect control. Currently, the development of alternate control methods and the potential health hazards of chemical insecticides are under intense investigation. Pest control management programs are certain to change as a result of these investigations and the current general attention to ecological problems.

Chemical insecticides have been used in the struggle between man and insect since before the First Century AD. In the last thirty years, however, the development and use of such products has increased at a phenomenal rate. The efficacy, persistency, and economy of the early insecticides are undoubtedly responsible for virtually eliminating many insect-borne diseases and preventing starvation for untold numbers of people. Insecticides are currently our first line of defense in control of insect outbreaks. They are useful because they are highly effective, provide an immediate effect, are able to bring large insect populations under control, and can be employed as needed.

Unfortunately insecticides possess a number of disadvantages. The principal ecological problems are that all of the commonly used insecticides are broad spectrum agents and do not limit their destruction to the target organism, and all contribute to ecological pollution either as the parent compound or a degradation or reaction product thereof. From the standpoint of human and animal health and welfare, many of these agents accumulate in the tissue of man and animals and may be associated with chronic health problems. Others are acutely toxic and have brought serious illness and death not only to their users but to innocent bystanders. Development of insect resistance has severely hampered the utility of many useful and inexpensive chemical agents. Finally, additional disadvantages have accrued because of careless use and overuse to the complete ignorance, in many instances, of alternative or supportive methods of pest control.

Trends in the utilization of insecticides, both the agents and the means of application, have undergone noteworthy changes. During the last three decade era insecticide usage has shifted almost completely from the very persistent and toxic arsenic compounds, the

organochlorines, are considered to be rather persistent, broad spectrum, contact and stomach poisons, which have the unfortunate characteristic of leaving cumulative residues in man and the environment. Insect resistance and general overuse initiated the trend toward the more acutely toxic and less persistent organophosphate compounds. Organophosphates, useful as contact, stomach, and systemic insecticides, were able to effect control of resistant insects and in addition, did not appear to leave toxic, cumulative residues. More recently, fear of human health problems and ecological considerations have tended to shift the usage patterns toward the relatively safer carbamate insecticides. In this move, organochlorines have been extremely limited in their usage and the phosphates have come under closer scrutiny.

A second trend has been to shift toward the use of the less persistent and less toxic compounds within these chemical groups. Methoxychlor, for example, has been used in certain applications instead of DDT because it is less persistent and has a lower mammalian toxicity. Malathion is preferred to other organophosphates, wherever it is an effective insecticide, due to a lower mammalian toxicity. More recently there has been a concerted effort to formulate certain of the common insecticides in such manner that they will rapidly degrade to ecologically safe chemicals.

While the ecology will benefit from the reduced usage of persistent insecticides, the cost of food production is destined to increase because of the necessity for more frequent applications of more expensive chemicals. Alternate methods of pest control hopefully will alleviate a portion of this problem. Currently, insecticide application by ultra low volume techniques is being used as an aid to improved distribution and thus a means of reducing the total quantities of insecticides required. A second technique, that of using encapsulated organophosphates in order to increase their persistence, has also been suggested. The development of insecticides which would effect eradication of the target insects with no persistence, toxic residues, or effect on other species has not as yet been accomplished.

Cultural procedures are the best known and most used alternate pest control methods in agricultural

production. Basically, such procedures attempt to eliminate insect breeding areas by general sanitation practices and methods of exposure to the elements or to confuse the insects by altering production practices. Such practices as fall plowing, rotation of crops, strip cropping, changing planting time or plant spacings, and fertilizer and water management have been found to be effective in minimizing crop damage. Cultural control procedures require considerable planning and extremely good fortune in effecting complete control, however, safety and efficiency dictates that such methods be included in insect pest control programs for agricultural production.

Physical and mechanical methods include some of the oldest and most primitive control procedures as well as ones which will no doubt be used for many years. They consist of direct or indirect measures to destroy the insect, disrupt its normal activity, or modify its environment to an unacceptable degree. Physical and mechanical methods are most useful in the protection of people and products in structures. Techniques involved include temperature and humidity control, exposure to radio-frequency energy and sound waves, barriers and excluders, artificial environments, and traps and grids. Certain techniques such as hand picking, use of flame and heat, and mechanical trapping have been used in agricultural practices. Trapping, utilizing chemical attractants, are currently becoming more important as insect control methods in agriculture and forest conservation.

Various chemical attractants have been used in conjunction with mechanical trapping and poisonous baits. Successful eradication programs, utilizing traps for the Mediterranean fruit fly in Florida and a toxicant bait for the oriental fruit fly on a Pacific island, have been accomplished with attractants.

The most recent development in the area of attractants is sex attractants. To date sex attractants for twenty-one insect species are undergoing active field trials. Sex attractants fall within the broad category of pheromones, substances which are secreted to the outside by one individual and when received by a second individual of the same species, will elicit a specific response. Disparlure, the pheromone produced by the female gypsy moth, is the best known, and one of the most potent, of the sex attractants. Disparlure has been extensively studied and synthesized by U.S. Department of Agriculture scientists. This synthetic pheromone has been shown to attract male gypsy moths in field trials in the presence of as little as 0.1 nanogram, is an effective trapping aid at 1 microgram, and will outdraw the female moth at a concentration of 10 ug. Field trials, currently in progress, will attempt to so permeate the air that the odor signals of the female moths will be jammed. By this procedure it is hoped that complete control and eventual eradication can be accomplished by a sex attractant.

Induction of sterility as a means of insect control has been under investigation for about thirty years. Perhaps the best known applications were the essential eradication of the screw-worm fly from the West Indies island of Curacao and the southeastern portion of the United States, and the eradication of the oriental fruit fly from Guam. This technique requires that insects be reared in captivity, sterilized, and released to compete in the natural population. Proper sterilization techniques generally do not interfere with the mating habits of insects, however, rearing in captivity severely limits the number of species to which this technique can be applied. Many species of insects are not suited to control by the rear-and-release method. Some are not adaptable to laboratory rearing and others would require excessive numbers to compete favorably with the large native population. In addition, certain species would be too hazardous, annoying, or destructive to release. Thus a second sterilization technique is available, the use of chemosterilants. Chemical agents, combined with mechanical trapping, allows the efficient sterilization of both males and females, at considerably less expense than irradiation. These agents are most efficient if placed in the food of the insect, however, they are effective if placed on the body. Chemosterilants are mutagenic and must be made available to the target insect in such manner that they will not endanger other insects, animals, and man.

Slightly over 30 years have been spent in the development of sterilization techniques for a very few insects. One would anticipate that a tremendous amount of time is needed to develop sterility techniques for the many insect species remaining. Such investigations and development will require the efforts of non-profit organizations since the profit potential is not currently visible. Insect control by sterility techniques depends to a large extent on mass action, is highly dependent on insect mobility and is a long-term method, relatively speaking, thus its principle benefit may be in eradication programs. Proponents are currently suggesting the use of a non-persistent insecticide followed by release of sterile males, to complete the eradication. Sterility techniques are safe, assuming chemosterilants are controlled, and should be useful in long-term insect control management programs.

One of the oldest and most natural insect control procedures is the use of so-called natural enemies, parasites and predators. The basic reason for incorporating these procedures into a pest control program is to maintain a pest species at a population below the point of economic importance. One of the chief problems in these programs is to control the predator-prey or parasite-host populations. Entomologists have predicted coincidental population cycles of both predator and prey, indicating that with those studied, the predator is totally dependent upon the target insect for food. Data are available, however, which show that such is not always true. Certain predators, while fastidious, are not fool-hardy. When their food supply decreases, they simply move on, thus leaving the insects to again reach

devastating numbers. On the other hand, certain predators may themselves become pests. With those species for which a stable predator-prey or parasite-host relationship can be maintained, below the economic threshold of the target insect, these control procedures are ideal. Such techniques do not leave toxic residues nor would they be expected to endanger other species.

Predator-parasite control procedures have been under study since about the middle of the 19th century. The accomplishments of these investigations emphasize the difficulty of locating and developing sufficient populations of specific predators and parasites. To date, the only successful man-made controls have evolved from immigrant insects. Control of the citrus cottony-cushion scale in California is an example of one of the earliest and most successful accomplishments. Importation of the Vedalia Beetle from Australia, the home of the citrus scale, is currently providing control of this scale problem. In addition to the difficulty of developing the proper predator-prey relationship one must also keep in mind that such control procedures are slow and must be carefully planned.

Control of insect pests by microbiological procedures are currently receiving considerable attention. Insect diseases have been recognized since the time of Aristotle and undoubtedly have been an unheralded weapon in man's survival. Scientists initiated studies designed to utilize microorganisms in insect control early in the 19th century. Bacteria and viruses, which cause insect diseases, are believed to be specific, do not constitute a known hazard to man or ecological components, and are biodegradable. The time element between application and effect is frequently much shorter than other alternate insect control methods and indeed approaches that of insecticides. Experience has shown that application of microbiological controls in the presence of insecticides does not reduce their effectiveness.

Microbiological agents, however, are plagued by some formidable disadvantages. They are considerably more difficult to produce than chemical insecticides and do not currently offer the profit potential. Thus the development of such agents have been, and will no doubt continue to be, in the domain of non-profit organizations. Their specificity dictates that a tremendously large number of species will need to be developed to effect control of the various insect pests in existence. Thus a long period of time will be required to make microbiological controls available for all destructive insects. In addition, the effectiveness of both bacteria and viruses are dependent upon precise time of application and environmental conditions.

The best known microbiological insect control agents, at the present, are *Bacillus thuringiensis* and the virus Viron/H, a virus effective against members of the genus *Heliothis*. *Bacillus thuringiensis* is the least fastidious and the most simple to produce of the two. However, it is most sensitive to environmental conditions and is killed readily by sunlight. This bacterium has been

effective in field trials against tent caterpillars, cankerworms, cabbage loopers, and others. Viron/H, on the other hand, is most fastidious and very difficult to produce. It is much more stable to environmental conditions and has been found to be effective against the cotton bollworm, corn earworm, tobacco budworm, and tomato fruitworm, in pilot-plant applications. Both of these agents can be applied in spray or dust formulations.

The obvious logical answer to insect pest control in the future is integrated pest control management programs. Integrated control is the joint utilization of several suitable techniques to eradicate pests or to maintain their populations below the economic threshold. Such programs are not new but have been disregarded to a large extent in the presence of the very effective chemical insecticides. We are currently in a position such that, both by necessity and by opportunity, integrated pest control programs must be initiated. Ecological problems, insect resistance, needed improvements in pest control, and high application costs of non-persistent insecticides, dictate that we take advantage of alternate control methods. Recent developments in attractants, sterility techniques, microbiology, and cultural procedures, which can be used prior to, together with, or following the application of short-lived insecticides, will assist in providing the necessary control. Integrated programs are desirable but difficult to achieve on a universal basis. The development of such programs will require the combined knowledge of the agricultural, chemical and biological scientists and the cooperation of all people concerned with insect control.

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WHY SOME CHEMICALS FAIL TO CONTROL

Amir A. Badiel, Ph.D.

The success or failure of an attempt at chemical regulation depends on the ability of the operator to distinguish the factors affecting pesticidal action and to take advantage of them. Because of the diversity of chemicals, pests, and environments, however, there is often insufficient information available to allow firm statements to be made. It must be realized that variables frequently interact with each other and in consequence deliberate alteration of one may not have a simply predictable effect. Nevertheless, an understanding of environment-pest-pesticide interactions and the specification of some of the parameters controlling field performance is therefore an essential step towards increasing the reliability and effectiveness of pesticides.

Resistance: Many experts in pesticidal work consider the phenomenon of pest resistance to pesticides as one of the biggest problems posing their profession. This phenomenon has been a real source of worry since the introduction of DDT and its many companion insecticides. Within 2 years after DDT was available to Government workers for laboratory tests, a strain of houseflies resistant to it had been selected. By the late 1940's the reason for the houseflies resistance to DDT was known. The degradation of DDT to DDE was more rapid in the resistant insects than in the susceptible insects.

Brown lists 171 species, divided into two general categories of agriculture and public health, which are now resistant to one or more insecticides. A 1969 publication raises this number to 224. The first instance of resistance in the U.S. was noted in 1908, when the San Jose scale resisted lime-sulfur sprays in certain orchards of Washington State.

When an insect population develops resistance to a given material, it is usually cross-resistant to related chemicals. But developed resistance to DDT, for example, does not necessarily involve a cross-resistance to cyclodien derivatives or lindane, and vice versa, and none of these resistances carries a cross-resistance to organophosphorous compounds. Therefore, in order to control the resistant population, an insecticide in a different class must be selected or a different method of control should be used.

Plants can also develop resistance to a pesticide. 2,4-D, the oldest of the systemic herbicides, was developed only about a quarter of a century ago. Yet as a result of the widespread use of this herbicide (about 100 million acres annually), shifts in weed population are evident. Weeds that are resistant to 2,4-D, such as the grasses and certain species of broadleaves, are becoming more prevalent. At the same time, the development and spread of ecotypes and races of "resistant" weed species is becoming encouraged. For example, it is now possible to grow several ecotypes of bindweed and to selectively control all but one ecotype by spraying with 2,4-D. This process of resistance is comparable to that which occurs in insects but it takes longer in plants for two reasons: (1) Insects may reproduce several times within a year but plants form seeds only once a year, and (2) the susceptible plant population is constantly being renewed by seeds buried in the soil which germinate over long periods of time.

Specificity: Although many insecticides are effective against a broad spectrum of insect types, a particular pest species is often more effectively controlled with certain insecticides than with others. Some exceptions to this are the systemic insecticides which may be incorporated in the soil. This is true of some herbicides as well.

Whatever specificity a given pesticide possesses usually derives from its relative ease of entry into the pest and to the active sites of poisoning. Nicotine was a specific for aphids because it was a potent contact insecticide and readily penetrated the nervous system, while Paris green was the choice material for the Colorado potato beetle because it was a suitable stomach poison. DDT is particularly effective against houseflies and adult mosquitoes because it is a residual insecticide, and against mosquito larvae and caterpillars because its toxicity is caused by contact as well as stomach action. Many beetles, however, that have heavy cuticular defenses, require the cyclodiene derivatives as chemical control agents on nonedible crops, e.g., the boll weevil on cotton.

The most widely used and best known herbicides are chlorophenoxy compounds. Characteristic of the group is effectiveness against many broadleaves and consequent selective use in cereals and grasses. TCA and dalapon, the chlorinated aliphatic acids are selective against grasses. Barban, a carbamate herbicide, is specific against wild oats in spring cereals. The stage of growth is very critical. The oats must be at about the two-leaf stage for best results, and the wheat at about the same stage. Oats become less sensitive as they grow older, but the cereal may be more severely affected.

Life Cycle and Timing: The development stage of a pest influences its susceptibility to pesticides. In general, larvae and nymphs are easier to kill than pupae and adults, and the early instars are often more susceptible than the later ones. Eggs are usually most susceptible just before hatching.

Behavior of the insect pest sometimes dictates modifications in treatment timing. The need for insecticidal treatment against the European corn borer, for example, is based primarily upon evidence

of leaf feeding by young larvae. At this time the larvae population feeding in the corn whorls may threaten the crop, but due to natural mortality, only a fraction of the original larval population may actually become established as borers and injure the plants. The treatment, however, is effective only when applied before the larvae bore into the stalks and become invulnerable to insecticidal control. Thus, a treatment at this late stage will result in a failure.

In lepidoptera, the damaging stage is larva - control practices are always aimed at this stage with little effort toward control of other stages. Early instar larvae are most susceptible to chemical control. Pupae are often protected in soil and adults seldom feed.

The timing of the treatment is also of prime importance in herbicidal applications. In general, susceptibility often decreases with age or maturity. The coast fiddleneck is very sensitive to 2,4-D in the rosette stage but becomes resistant as soon as the plants start to flower. Tansy ragwort, a biennial, is moderately susceptible to 2,4-D in the first year. In the second year, when it begins to flower, it is much more difficult to kill. Unfortunately, in the first year, it is relatively inconspicuous, in the second year, when it is conspicuous because of its bright yellow flowers, it is then recognized as a serious problem but it is too late to spray effectively.

Plant responses may differ between chemicals also for example, pepperwort becomes decreasingly susceptible to MCPA as the growing season progresses, yet shows an increasing susceptibility to 2,4-D until flowering time, followed then by decreased susceptibility.

Generally speaking, plants that grow rapidly - i.e. those that grow under optimum conditions of adequate moisture, warmth, and nutrients - are most susceptible. Seedlings of perennial weeds should be treated within a few days after germination before the plant has begun to compete seriously with the crop or before it has established an extensive root system that will enable it to withstand chemical treatment.

Dosage: Correct dosage is very important, since less than the correct dosage will surely result in failure to control the pest, and more than the correct dosage may injure plants or animals or cause excessive residue. It appears that a sufficient amount of most chemicals will be lethal, a lesser amount harmful, a still lesser amount stimulatory, and an even smaller amount of negligible effect. The chemical or its metabolic products must persist on or in the pest in a toxic form and in sufficient amount for as long a time as necessary for the killing action to take place.

Computing dosages requires simple arithmetic. Error usually arises from the variety of ways in which dosages are given and from carelessness.

Dosages are often given as a range. Sometimes the treatment is intended to control two or more species, one of which might inherently be more tolerant of the pesticide than the others. When this tolerant species is absent from the complex, the lower dosage will suffice; when the tolerant species is present, the higher dosage is necessary.

Formulations: Treatment effectiveness is much governed by the choice of formulation. The effectiveness of an insecticide, for example, is enhanced by a formulation that concentrates the initial deposit of insecticide at the critical site, or by a formulation that yields a more persistent residue. To illustrate granular formulations were invented to carry mosquito larvicides into water covered by dense foliage that shielded the water from dusts or sprays. Granules also concentrate insecticides in the whorl of corn where the larvae of several insects habitually feed. The coarse particles roll down the corn leaves and are funneled into the throat of the plant whorl. In both examples, the effective initial deposit is multiplied by this particular formulation. Herbicides in granular form for soil application also have several advantages over spray or dust applications. It is possible to modify the properties of the granules so that the rate at which the pesticide is released can be controlled.

The elemental makeup of a pesticidal formulation is also important in the effectiveness of a treatment. The esters of 2,4-D, for example, are generally considered more toxic to plants than the amine salts. This greater toxicity is probably due to their compatibility with the cuticle and leaf waxes which they may be able to penetrate more readily. Also, they have greater wetting ability because of the oil-like nature of the ester. The oil carrier may aid penetration of the stomates and volatility permits entry of the vapors through the stomates.

Compatability: Pesticides are often applied in conjunction with other pesticides, or with plant nutrients and it is important that the separate ingredients of these multicomponent sprays or dusts do not reduce the biological efficiency of any of the other components, i.e., that they are compatible. Incompatibility may be the result of chemical reaction between the individual components of the mixture - either the chemicals themselves or their formulating agents - or it may be caused physically, as in the flocculation of suspensions by oil emulsions and in the preferential adsorption of one toxicant on the carrier of the other. There are many examples of chemical interaction: pyrethrum, rotenone, and - to a lesser extent - DDT, are inactivated by lime sulfur. The organophosphorus insecticides such as parathion, malathion, and phosdrin are rapidly hydrolyzed by the alkaline bordeaux wetting agents; a cationic fungicide such as dodine can react with anionic wetting agents. To aid practical spray application, numerous compatibility charts have been prepared by official and commercial organizations. These charts are invaluable for determining gross compatibility characteristics but it must be remembered that the rate and extent of any chemical reaction is a function of the concentration of reactants and that the property of the formulation supplements, such as wetting and emulsifying agents, are not usually considered in the construction of these tables.

Reactions - either chemical or physical adsorption displacement - involving the surface-active agents which stabilize the suspension or emulsions in the tank mixture can destroy the formulation and therefore the pesticidal properties of pesticides.

Environmental Factors: An invaluable property of an ideal pesticide would be complete independence of environmental conditions: the capacity to be fully selective and fully active against pests irrespective of temperature, rainfall, light intensity, humidity, soil type, nutrient level, and so on. But in actual practice

environmental conditions do alter effectiveness of pesticides. The rate at which a pesticide is absorbed into the pest body and its subsequent translocation and metabolic breakdown are affected by the temperature. Thus the most effective temperature conditions for a successful kill are a high temperature to get the poison inside the insect followed by low temperatures which slow the rate of detoxification. Some chemicals (DDT, methoxychlor, and TDE) are an exception to this rule in that they are most effective at continual relatively low temperatures. Usually the quick-acting poisons are more effective at higher temperatures and the slow-acting poisons at lower temperatures. In herbicidal treatments, high temperature before and after spraying appears to increase weed susceptibility and mortality, but supraoptimal temperature may reduce herbicidal entry by causing wilting, closure of stomates, and rapid drying of spray deposits.

Rains wash off water-soluble sprays, but many pesticides (insecticides and fungicides) now in use do not fall into this category. Wind and rain cause the "weathering" of the less tenacious portions of spray deposits. The effect of rainfall depends on the quantity of rain and its timing. In the case of foliage - applied herbicides, for example, rain during or closely following spraying can reduce or nullify toxicity. Rain before spraying may increase leaf wettability and hence susceptibility to a herbicide. Granular lawn herbicides should be applied to a wet foliage to be more effective.

Sunlight causes breakdown of pesticides for as long as residues remain exposed. This phenomenon, the disappearance of the chemical from the surface in regions of high light intensity is termed photodecomposition. It has been shown that the effectiveness of many pesticides applied to soils exposed to bright sunlight and little rainfall might be drastically reduced due to photodecomposition. The formative and growth responses of plants to light which in turn affect the performance of a pesticide should also be kept in mind.

Low relative humidities have a deleterious drying effect on the fine mists produced in spraying. Penetration might cease with droplet desiccation.

Many pests are controlled most readily by application of pesticides to the soil. The consequences of this are that the toxicant may persist in the soil for periods ranging from a few hours in the case of fumigants and unstable materials to several years in the case of residual compounds. Like foliar-applied chemicals performance of soil-applied chemicals is conditioned on many factors. Adsorption, leaching, decomposition, and volatility are among these factors.

When one considers all the factors that can influence the response of pests to pesticides and hence the effectiveness of a pesticide application, it is perhaps surprising how often pesticidal treatment is successful.

Treatments, as we all know, occasionally fail to fulfill expectations. The practice of pest management and control is an art, and herein lies room for mistakes in judgment and execution. One precaution however, is to allow sufficient time for maximum effort, and here familiarity with the chemical is imperative. A nonresidual contact pesticide causes maximum mortality quickly; a systemic pesticide may not produce maximum mortality for days, although indication of probable results is usually visible sooner.

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FEDERAL LEGISLATION - ITS IMPACT ON PESTICIDE SAFETY

Emerson R. Baker, J.D.

A. Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 [Public Law 91-596]

An act to assure safe and healthful working conditions for men and women; by authorizing enforcement of the standards developed under the Act; by assisting and encouraging the states in their efforts to assure safe and healthful working conditions; by providing for research, information, education, and training in the field of occupational safety and health; and for other purposes.

Contents:

- Section 1. Short Title
- " 2. Congressional findings and purpose
- " 3. Definitions
- " 4. Applicability of act
- " 5. Duties of employers
- " 6. Occupational safety and health standards
- " 7. Administration; advisory committees
- " 8. Inspection, investigations and reports
- " 9. Citations for violations
- " 10. Procedures for enforcement
- " 11. Procedures to counteract imminent dangers
- " 12. Representation in civil litigation
- " 13. Confidentiality of trade secrets
- " 14. Penalties
- " 15. Variations, tolerances, and exemptions
- " 16. State jurisdiction and State plans
- " 17. Federal agency safety programs and responsibilities
- " 18. Research, training and related activities
- " 19. National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
- " 20. Grants to States; statistics
- " 21. Audits
- " 22. Annual report
- " 23. National Commission on State Workmen's Compensation Laws
- " 24. Economic assistance to small businesses
- " 25. Additional Assistant Secretary of Labor
- " 26. Separability
- " 27. Appropriations
- " 28. Effective date

B. Federal Environmental Pesticide Control Act of 1971

Senate Bills

- 232 - (Prohibits sale or shipment of aldrin, chlordane, DDD/TDE, dieldrin, endrin, heptachlor, lindane, toxaphene)
- 272 - (Prohibits sale or shipment of DDT)
- 660 - "National Pesticide Control and Protection Act"
- 745 - "Federal Environmental Pesticide Control Act of 1971"

House Bills

- 26 - (Prohibits importation of certain agricultural commodities to which pesticides have been applied)
- 1077
- 1722
- 4152 - "Federal Environmental Pesticide Control Act of 1971"
- 4596
- 5182
- 6576
- 6761

House Committee Print 3 (July 13, 1971)

This document represents current thinking of the House Committee on Agriculture after hearing testimony from many different individuals. It varies considerably from H.R. 4152, which was drafted by EPA and submitted by the administration. Nearly 1,000 pages of testimony were printed by the House Committee and almost an equal amount by the Senate Subcommittee on Agricultural Research and General Legislation. Probably an equal volume of material was presented to the committees and placed in their files.

- Section 1. Short title and table of contents.
- Sec. 2. Definitions
 - (e) Certified pesticide applicator, etc.
- Sec. 3. Registration of pesticides.
 - (d) Classification of pesticides
 - (1) Classification for general use, restricted use, or both.
- Sec. 4. Use of restricted use pesticide; certified applicators.
 - (a) Limitation on use.
 - (b) Certification procedure.
 - (1) Federal certification.
 - (2) State certification.
- Sec. 5. Permits for experimental use.
 - (a) Issuance.
 - (b) Use under permit.
 - (c) Temporary tolerance level.
 - (d) Studies.
 - (e) Revocation.
- Sec. 6. Cancellation and suspension of registration of pesticides.
- Sec. 7. Registration of establishments.
- Sec. 8. Books and records.
- Sec. 9. Inspection of establishments, etc.

- Sec. 10. Protection of trade secrets, etc.
- Sec. 11. Standards applicable to pesticide applicators.
 - (a) In general.
 - (b) Separate standards.
- Sec. 12. Unlawful acts.
- Sec. 13. Stop sale, use, removal; and seizure.
- Sec. 14. Penalties.
 - (b) User or applicator.
- Sec. 15. Indemnities.
- Sec. 16. Administrative procedure; judicial review.
- Sec. 17. Imports and exports.
- Sec. 18. Exemption of Federal agencies.
- Sec. 19. Disposal and transportation.
 - (a) Procedures.
- Sec. 20. Research and monitoring.
- Sec. 21. Solicitation of public comments.
- Sec. 22. Delegation and cooperation.
- Sec. 23. State cooperation, aid, and training.
- Sec. 24. Authority of States and political subdivisions.
- Sec. 25. Authority of Administrator.
- Sec. 26. Severability.
- Sec. 27. Authorization for appropriations.

C. Other Pesticide Related Legislation

1. Poison Prevention Packaging Act of 1970 [Public Law 91-601]

The following information has been extracted from the March 1971 issue of FDA Papers:

"Among the important bills signed into law...during the...91st Congress was the Poison Prevention Packaging Act of 1970 (P.L. 91-601), which will be administered by FDA. The basic concept of the legislation is to protect children from accidentally ingesting toxic substances by requiring safety closures and other safety packaging.

"FDA has already acted under the Federal Hazardous Substances Act against certain liquid drain cleaners containing more than 10 percent sodium or potassium hydroxide by publishing a proposal to require child-resistant packaging. Products failing to comply would be classified as banned hazardous substances.

"The legislation is aimed specifically at protecting children under five years of age.

"Coverage of the Act extends beyond that of the Federal Hazardous Substances Act and includes all hazardous substances, economic poisons, foods, drugs, cosmetics, and household fuels in portable containers...(and)... to items customarily stored around the household even when such products may not be destined for use around the household.

"The bill authorizes the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to establish special packaging standards for virtually all household substances after consultation with a technical advisory committee.

"One of the major controversies that had arisen over this legislation...related to the exemption permitted for the benefit of the elderly and handicapped. The Senate, recognizing this contingency, provided that one size of a product could be marketed in noncomplying packages for this purpose if such packages bore a label stating that the noncomplying packages are intended for households without young children.

"Establishment of a technical advisory committee of up to 18 members by the Secretary is mandatory under the Act and consultation with the committee prior to making findings and in establishing standards is required.

"The legislation provides for accomplishing enforcement by amending the misbranding sections of the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act; the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act; and the Federal Hazardous Substances Act."

2. Hazardous Materials Transportation Act of 1970 [Public Law 91-458]
3. Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act
4. State use and application laws and regulations

PESTICIDE POISONING: A MEDICAL EXAMINER'S VIEW

Joseph H. Davis, M.D.

The diagnosis of poisoning is usually considered in terms of characteristic symptoms corroborated by specific laboratory findings. However, the first step in a diagnosis is to think of the possibility. The next step is to carry out the necessary investigations. In order to achieve the ultimate in accuracy in poison death or injury investigation, the physician, or investigative agency, should possess the following:

1. A high index of suspicion
2. A background knowledge of the community
3. Familiarity with the variables of clinical manifestation
4. Facilities for careful initial and subsequent scene investigation
5. Facilities for prompt use of laboratory testing, bearing in mind the limitations of such procedures

Only by knowledge of community experience may the physician be alert to the possibilities of pesticide causing an illness or fatality. In Dade County, Florida, a ten-year review of over 1000 poison deaths investigated by the Office of the Medical Examiner has revealed that pesticides comprised approximately 9.7 per cent of the total of all poison deaths including accidents, suicides, and homicides. If intentional poison deaths are excluded, leaving 313 accidental cases, pesticides comprised 11.8 per cent of the cases. With children under 5 years of age, a total of 45 deaths in 10 years, pesticides comprised 49.0 per cent, 22 cases. This was double the number of deaths due to medications, the majority of which were salicylates.⁽¹⁾

Of all the pesticide deaths and injuries studied in this one community, organophosphates, usually parathion, were the most common and produced the greatest number of clinically observed cases.

The clinical manifestations of organophosphate pesticide poisoning are well described and include miosis (constricted pupils), weakness and collapse, muscular fasciculations (twitchings), cutis anserina (goose flesh), diaphoresis (sweating), pulmonary edema, nausea, vomiting and diarrhea. Unfortunately, not every patient follows a set pattern of clinical response when initially viewed by the physician. The clinical signs may be confused with encephalitis, brain injury, hypertensive encephalopathy, pneumonitis, gastroenteritis, asthma, and congestive heart failure, to name a few.

Clinical laboratory data might confuse the clinician. In a local study of 60 hospitalized parathion cases, one-third has glycosuria in the acute phase of poisoning. This could lead to a misdiagnosis of diabetes. Leukocytosis coupled with pulmonary edema could easily lead to a diagnosis of infectious pneumonitis. Miosis, constriction of the pupils, has been frequently emphasized as a diagnostic sign. However, it was noted in only 50 per cent of the series of hospitalized cases. Another recent review of hospitalized cases revealed 6 out of 44 who had mydriasis (dilation of the pupils) instead of miosis.⁽²⁾

Specific laboratory tests for organophosphate poisoning may be confusing unless all circumstances are carefully considered. For example, the bromothymol blue screening procedure for cholinesterase activity may be "normal" due to the blood having an initial acid pH or a very high hematocrit. This may lead to an error in diagnosis in what would otherwise be considered an organophosphate poisoning or death.⁽²⁾

Examples of the problems of diagnosis, investigation of circumstances, and treatment are typified in the following cases:

Case I (63-1713) A 5-year old child developed diarrhea and foaming at the mouth while playing in the backyard. He was dead on arrival at a nearby physician's office. Poison was suspected in the form of some palm leaves with which the child was playing. The postmortem appearance of miotic pupils, watery foam from the mouth, and rapid onset of symptoms and death indicated an organophosphate poisoning. Police were directed to search for parathion which was subsequently found in a whisky bottle from which the child drank under the mistaken belief that it was eggnog.

Case II (63-1485) This 70-year old vagrant, whose home consisted of a discarded packing crate, was found dead. Because of the agricultural area in which he lived, the autopsy study was directed along the lines of organophosphate poisoning with resulting positive results. This type of case could easily be misdiagnosed in view of the age of the victim, his social status and the additional fact that he was beginning to decompose.

Case III (61-1854) This 31-year old female was admitted to a hospital unable to speak due to pulmonary edema. She wrote a note to the nurses indicating that her soft drink had been poisoned. Despite this she was treated with antibiotics for pneumonia and died 4 hours after admission. Her boyfriend was charged with murder.

Case IV (62-1602) This 53-year old male became ill while drinking beer in a saloon. He died in a taxicab on the way home. Small pupils, coupled with the fact that he died in association with a saloon, led to an investigation of organophosphate. Parathion was detected. The police arrested a woman who confessed to putting a drop of 80 per cent parathion into his beer "just to make him sick."

Case V (64-343) This 16-month old Negro child collapsed to the ground while playing. Ineffectual small doses of atropine were given. Twitching of muscles (fasciculations) were treated with Dilantin. Head trauma was suspected.

He died the following morning. The postmortem appearance, small pupils, pulmonary edema, suggested an organophosphate. Chemical tests for parathion and its metabolic by-products were negative. Subsequently it was found that the family used Guthion concentrate as a fly spray in the bedroom of the child. Empty pesticide containers were being used in profusion throughout the community as utility cans for water, kerosene, gasoline, garbage, etc.

Case VI (65-2103) This 18-year old male was found unresponsive and admitted to a hospital with a story of having drunk from a soda pop bottle containing turpentine. He died 3 hours and 45 minutes after admission. The stomach contained a chemical having similar characteristics to the contents of the soft drink bottle. Red cell cholinesterase activity was markedly depressed. The contents of the bottle were found to be Zectran-2E, a carbamate insecticide obtained from his place of employment.

It was initially assumed, because the family said so, that the material in the soft drink bottle was turpentine. A significant part of the initial determination of the type of poison is a scene search and knowledgeable interrogation of witnesses. This is difficult to do on an emergency basis in view of the usual lack of community facilities for this type of investigation.

Case VII (Acc. 61) A small child was admitted to a hospital. The physicians suspected poisoning but ruled out pesticides because the family acknowledged only that the house had been fumigated. Subsequently it was found that the "fumigation" consisted of having an unlicensed door-to-door "structural pest control operator" sprinkle "roach powder" in the home. The physician had assumed that fumigation meant the classical tent fumigations. The family thought the word meant what had occurred in its home the day before. Fortunately the father had enough concern to bring some of the powder to the laboratory where it was immediately determined to be parathion. The physicians were alerted, and energetic therapy with atropine and PAM led to a speedy recovery.

Case VIII (66-924) This small child was found playing with some powder obtained from a container marked D-Con whose label indicated it to contain 0.023 per cent warfarin. A physician called on the telephone, assumed the label to be correct and advised no therapy was needed. The child died. In view of the circumstances the death was erroneously certified as being due to warfarin poisoning. With subsequent interest in civil litigation the body was exhumed and transported to a distant medical examiner laboratory for study. Material from the container as well as from the embalmed body revealed parathion. In this case the source of confusion was due to the substitution of one insecticide for another.

Case IX (Acc. 68) This man was admitted to a hospital and stated that he had been poisoned. He had dilated pupils. A physician commenced treatment for organophosphate poisoning. Initial chemical tests were confusing due to the presentation of late stomach washings to the laboratory, rather than the initial stomach content. Energetic therapy over a period of several days, coupled with an equally energetic epidemiological background investigation, led to the proper solution of the case. The victim had drunk approximately 2 ounces of concentrated Guthion shortly before admission to the hospital.

Case X (Acc. 59) Moonshine still operators have found that pesticide barrels are useful for fermenting mash.

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SAFETY IN TRANSPORT AND STORAGE OF PESTICIDES

James F. Byrne

A discussion of the above topic must necessarily consider pesticide containers; Department of Transportation regulations; protection of the public, workers, and environment in handling pesticide spills; and, finally, manufacturers' assistance to provide such protection.

A discussion on containers should be limited to those designed for pesticide products which if released would represent an immediate hazard to human life. The higher the degree of hazard, the more urgent the problem. Parathions, for instance, are a case for urgency; whereas DDT or CHLORODANE are not.

Hazardous liquid pesticides are transported in steel containers, lined and unlined, from one-gallon size up to 55-gallon drums. Glass, though an excellent container, is fragile and represents a hazard in itself. Hazardous pesticides are not known to be packaged in plastic containers.

Failure in steel containers can be grouped in two general areas: (a) failure due to abuse in handling, and (b) failure due to structural defects in manufacturing the container. It can also be stated that the rate of failure attributable to manufacturing increases as the container gets smaller. Conversely, the rate of failure attributed to abuse climbs as the container gets larger.

Aside from exposure to a larger volume of product as a result of a larger container leaking, the knowledge does exist on how to reduce these leakers significantly. These failures (leakers) occur largely through mishandling in loading, transportation, and warehousing, which can be reduced through education.

Failure due to manufacturing defects or inadequacies are a serious problem related to small containers. Despite years of investigation, the problem still exists in the one-gallon container. Aluminum, glass, plastics and copolymers, combinations, and composites still have not replaced steel pails and manufacturers continue having difficulty fabricating a one-gallon can without damaging the lining as well as properly sealing flex spouts.

The Department of Transportation, of course, is concerned over the transportation of hazardous materials, in particular, on movement of Class B Poisons with food stuffs, which is banned.

Since special tariff regulations apply to the transport of certain classifications of poisons, an explanation of these several classes follows: extremely dangerous poison - Class A, less dangerous poison - Class B; tear gases or irritating substances - Class C; radioactive materials - Class D.

Class A Poisons are listed specifically as to the name and chemical make-up of the product. Thirteen such poisons are listed by the tariff. Some materials so classified are Bromacetone, Diphosgene (Phosgene), Nitrogen Peroxide, and Mustard Gas.

Class C Poisons are those materials, liquid or solid, "which upon contact with fire or when exposed to air give off dangerous or intensely irritating fumes." Some materials so classified are Monochloroacetone (stabilized), Tear Gas grenades or candles (without ignition elements or fuses), and Chloroacetophenone.

Radioactive materials are designated as a Class D Poison, however, the regulations concerning packaging and transportation of radioactive material differs from the regulations covering toxic materials and would not pertain herein.

Class B Poisons, to which this discussion is addressed, are described by the tariff as "those substances, liquid or solid...other than Class A or Class C Poisons, which are known to be so toxic to man as to afford a hazard to health during transporting or which, in the absence of adequate data on human toxicity, are presumed to be toxic to man on the basis of tests conducted on laboratory animals. If a product meets any of the lethal dose criteria, it must be classified as a Class B Poison and carry a flammable "ICC" label. Although products may have the characteristics of a Class B Poison, tariffs stipulate that the products which meet the requirements to be classified as more than one class of Dangerous Article, must be labeled with the classification designating the highest degree of danger. In other words, the products' flammable aspects take precedence.

Further, with respect to Class B Poisons, a Motor Carrier regulation specifies that "material marked or known to be poison (Class A or B) must not be transported in the same vehicle with material known to be food stuffs, feeds or any edible material intended for consumption by humans or animals." Nothing is said about poisons of less than Class B potency but still dangerous, or a mixed personal use cargo, such as clothing, that might be contaminated by Class B Poisons and also hazardous to the user.

As of December 31, 1970, the Department of Transportation has required each carrier transporting hazardous materials to report by telephone to the DOT at the earliest practical moment after an incident in which as a direct result of hazardous transporting, a person is killed, hospitalized, property damages exceed \$50,000, or a continuing danger to life exists at the scene of the incident. Transportation regulations include, as well, loading, unloading and temporary storage. Written reports of such incidents involving highway or railroad accidents are required of the carrier within 15 days of the discovery of the incident. Also required are reports of any "unintentional release of hazardous materials."

It is obvious from the above that the carrier plays a significant role in protecting the public from Class B pesticide exposure and cannot delay reporting and seeking assistance when he has an upset or discovers a leaking container. Responsible manufacturers of pesticides provide the necessary warning information of their products being transported.

Safe pesticide storage or "warehousing" is a matter of prime importance. There are no government rules or regulations on warehousing. Pesticide manufacturers as well as the National Agricultural Chemicals Association do publish storage guidance with respect to the several classifications of pesticides. The only general or non-specific collection of rules for safe pesticide storage, known to this author, was prepared by Cornell University in Supplement II of its Northeast Pesticide Information Manual. Chapter V of this Supplement is quoted as follows: "Rules for safe pesticide storage: Identify pesticide storage with prominent waterproof signs over each entrance, including windows if present and on all sides of building. Keep locked when not in use. Inform police, fire department, and public health officials in writing of the location and layout of the storage, types of materials stored, and hazards involved. Leave phone numbers of persons responsible for storage with fire chief. Fire companies should map the locations of pesticide chemical storages in their respective areas. Inform local physicians and hospital of potential hazards and be sure they know how to treat and that antidotes are on hand. (The U. S. Public Health's Clinical Handbook on Economic Poisons should be available.) Antidotes should include an adequate supply of atropine sulfate and 2-PAM (Protopam chloride). Post list of chemicals (organophosphates, carbamates, herbicides, chlorinated hydrocarbons, flammable solvents, etc.) on outside of building, along with storage plan. Obtain desirable firefighting equipment, familiarize yourself and your help with its operation. Be sure it works. Keep pesticide containers, particularly glass, away from windows and out of sun so they will not be subject to heat and ignition. Do not store partly empty containers of pesticides containing chlorates. Keep combustibles away from steam lines and heat. Read label for information on flammability and store accordingly. Store highly toxic pesticides in one area. Store herbicides separately from other pesticides to prevent cross-contamination and to prevent mistakes in choice of material. Dispose of unlabeled pesticides. Treat them as highly toxic. Keep a quantity of hydrated lime on hand for detoxification of spills."

Major pesticide manufacturers normally provide information on safe storage and handling as well as on site decontamination kits at their own and public warehouse locations.

With respect to assistance rendered in the event of a pesticide spill endangering the general public, workers and the environment, major manufacturers are, for the most part, prepared to assist immediately on notification of a spill of one of their products. To better ensure that complete national coverage is provided by all major manufacturers, the National Agricultural Chemicals Association has sponsored membership participation in a national network of trained safety teams, designed to minimize the risk arising from the accidental spillage or leakage of pesticide chemicals in the Class B Poison category. This network began operation on March 9, 1970. More than 38 teams were initially involved in the NACA program known as the Pesticide Safety Team Network, and many more have since joined.

Each participating company has been assigned one of 10 specific areas in the United States within which it will act as the Area Coordinator. The Area Coordinator is notified by Telephone Central, which operates monitors on a 24-hour basis in Cincinnati, Ohio, reports of any accident involving a Class B Poison pesticide occurring in his area. After receiving such an emergency message, the Area Coordinator immediately will attempt to communicate with the manufacturer or producer of the involved product and agree on a procedure to be followed. The person reporting the incident to Telephone Central is then contacted

and advised on what immediate steps to take. If a safety team is needed, it is dispatched to the scene of the accident by the Area Coordinator from a roster of teams in his area, or by the manufacturer.

In the first year of operation, 47 cases were handled by the Network, and as its existence has become better known, reports of spills have increased accordingly.

At this point, the question naturally arises as to the purpose and responsibilities of pesticide decontamination teams. Essentially, a pesticide team attempts to minimize hazards to people from exposure to hazardous chemical spills; to minimize damage to plant property and animal life, to better confine the effect of the immediate incident by guarding against its extension or the occurrence of secondary incidents; to provide appropriate coordination and return to normalcy at the site of the incident; to provide for discriminate release of information on the incident to avoid undue public speculation and hysteria.

In meeting the above objectives, the teams will recommend to local authorities that the contaminated area be roped off and confine entry to those persons who are properly protected. If there is visible spread of hazardous material, recommend to local authorities to evacuate all residents in the path of spread and maintain a close check of wind conditions and direction until the hazard abates. Recommend prompt medical attention of persons known to have been exposed or suspected of having been exposed to poisonous materials. Advise local, state and Federal health authorities of possible contamination of water supplies, if such a hazard appears to exist.

The teams will then advise local workers on decontamination, removal and safe disposal of residue, ensuring all the while their personal protection. As is often the case, the team members will themselves perform many of the manual chores required in the decontamination process.

No two situations are the same, therefore, the technical ability and maturity of the individual team member is carefully considered before his assignment.

The team captain, under most circumstances, will be a plant manager at a pesticide basic manufacturing or formulating plant. He must possess the ability to make intelligent on-the-spot judgments. He must be able to take charge of an emergency situation and formulate a plan of action which will insure maximum safety to the public. He must be willing to carry out the plan and go to any length necessary to insure himself and any authorities which may become involved that the situation has been rendered safe.

The following listing of qualifications are considered to be of utmost importance and essential in the selection of team captains to meet the high standards which must be established by the PST Network. First-hand experience working with toxic pesticides preferably gained from previous and/or present responsibilities in a plant or plants manufacturing or formulating Class B Poison pesticides. Extensive knowledge of the safe handling and operational precautions of toxic pesticides to be able to give special advice, direction, and guidance in the case of a spillage incident. Extensive knowledge of requirements and limitations of protective clothing and equipment for working with toxic pesticides. Sufficient knowledge of personal hygiene, signs and symptoms of intoxication by toxic pesticides, and first aid treatment to insure maximum safety to all persons possibly exposed to toxic pesticides until such time as a physician is contacted.

The National Agricultural Chemical Association and its participating members have been gratified by the results of its efforts. Future success should continue so long as cooperation continues between all interested parties, the carriers, warehousemen, applicators, and at all levels of government.

CALIBRATION OF EQUIPMENT

Robert D. Black

A. Nozzle Types and Uses

There are basically 8 different types of broadcast spraying for use with all the spraying and metering techniques employed in the farm chemical spray field. It is recommended that all nozzles are designed and fabricated under quality control methods to assure precise calibration. Most nozzles are available in a choice of materials to meet requirements of application. These include brass, aluminum, stainless steel, and nylon. In addition, it is recommended that these nozzles be of the material that offers the greatest resistance to corrosion and erosion relative to the chemical used.

The 8 methods of broadcast spraying are:

1. Overlapping Boom Spraying Nozzles
 - a. Tee-jet
 - b. Flood-jet
 - c. Vee-jet
2. Ban Spraying Nozzles
 - a. Even Spray Nozzles
3. Boomless Spraying Nozzles
 - a. Doc-jet
 - b. Boom-jet
 - c. Field-jet
 - d. Off Center
4. Row crop nozzles
 - a. Cone-jet
 - b. Disc type tee-jet
5. Fertilizer and Fumigant Metering and Spraying Nozzles
 - a. Vee-jet
 - b. Tee-jet Flow Regulators
6. Spray Gun Applications
 - a. Gun-jets
7. Airplane and Helicopter Spraying Nozzle
 - a. Diaphragm tee-jet
8. Misblower Nozzles
 - a. Whirl-jet
 - b. Disc type tee-jet

- B. Manipulations of properly calibrated equipment (lbs./ozs./acre-verses nozzle)
 - 1. Graft (will show slides and explain 80° Tee-jet Nozzles)
- C. Determination of accuracy of application.

Because conditions in farm areas vary with each locality, it is recommended that the individual follow the directions given by local specialists from chemical manufacturers, universities, and the USDA. Also, before applying chemicals, read the label and follow all safety instructions.

 - 2. Show graphs on useful information.

After useage the spray tip may clog or wear; thereby resulting in improper, often costly, chemical application. It is most important to clean your equipment and spray tips and check the flow rate before each use.

USEFUL INFORMATION

CAPACITY TABULATIONS BASED ON SPRAYING WATER

Water weighs 8.34 lbs. per gallon. When spraying solutions are heavier or lighter than water, multiply tabulated gallonage figure by factor shown below.

Weight of Solution	Specific Gravity	Conversion Factors
7.0 lbs. per gallon	.84	1.09
8.0 lbs. per gallon	.96	1.02
8.34 lbs. per gallon—WATER	1.00	1.00
9.0 lbs. per gallon	1.08	.96
10.0 lbs. per gallon	1.20	.91
11.0 lbs. per gallon	1.32	.87
12.0 lbs. per gallon	1.44	.83

USEFUL FORMULAS

$$\text{G.P.M.} = \frac{\text{G.P.A.} \times \text{M.P.H.} \times \text{W}^{\circ}}{5940}$$

(Per Nozzle)

$$\text{G.P.A.} = \frac{5940 \times \text{G.P.M.}}{\text{M.P.H.} \times \text{W}^{\circ}}$$

*W—Nozzle spacing (in boom spraying) or spray swath (in boomless spraying) in inches.

ABBREVIATIONS

G.P.A.—Gallons per Acre
 G.P.M.—Gallons per Minute
 G.P.H.—Gallons per Hour
 M.P.H.—Miles per Hour
 N.P.T.—Tapered Pipe Thread
 P.S.I.—Pounds per Square Inch (gauge pressure)

MISCELLANEOUS CONVERSION FACTORS

One Acre—43,560 square feet
 One Mile—5,280 feet
 One Gallon—128 fluid ounces
 —8 pints
 —4 quarts
 One Foot Head—.43 pounds per square inch
 25.4 microns—.001"

G.P.A. TABULATIONS FOR BOOM SPRAY NOZZLES

The spacing of nozzles is illustrated and stated in the nozzle tabulations of this catalog. Where spacing of nozzles on a boom is other than listed in the tabulations, multiply the tabulated G.P.A. coverage by one of the following conversion factors that apply.

Where Tables Are Based On 20" Nozzle Spacing									
Other Spacing	8"	10"	12"	14"	16"	18"	22"	24"	30"
Conversion Factor	2.5	2	1.67	1.43	1.25	1.11	.91	.83	.66

Where Tables Are Based On 40" Nozzle Spacing									
Other Spacing	20"	30"	32"	34"	36"	38"	42"	44"	48"
Conversion Factor	1.43	1.33	1.25	1.18	1.11	1.06	.96	.91	.83

TRACTOR SPEEDS

Speed/MPH	Time Required in SECONDS to Travel a Distance of:		
	100 Feet	200 Feet	300 Feet
1.0	68	137	206
1.5	45	91	136
2.0	34	68	102
2.5	27	55	82
3.0	23	45	68
3.5	20	39	58
4.0	17	34	51
4.5	16	30	45
5.0	14	27	41

RATES OF FLOW

G P M	Seconds To Collect 1 Quart		G P M	Seconds To Collect 1 Quart	
.05	300		.175	86	
.06	250		.20	75	
.07	214		.225	67	
.08	188		.25	60	
.09	167		.30	50	
.10	150		.325	46	
.11	136		.35	43	
.12	125		.40	38	
.13	115		.425	35	
.14	107		.45	33	
.15	100		.50	30	



FLAT SPRAY Teejet Tip No.	Liquid Pressure in p.s.i.	Capacity 1 Nozzle in G.P.M.	GALLONS PER ACRE					
			2 M.P.H.	3 M.P.H.	4 M.P.H.	5 M.P.H.	7.5 M.P.H.	10 M.P.H.
800067 4.3 GPA (100 MESH)	20	.05	7.0	4.7	3.5	2.8	1.8	1.4
	25	.055	7.8	5.2	3.9	3.1	2.1	1.6
	30	.06	8.6	5.7	4.3	3.4	2.3	1.7
	40	.067	9.8	6.6	4.9	4.0	2.6	2.0
	50	.07	11.0	7.4	5.5	4.4	3.0	2.2
8001 6.4 GPA (100 MESH)	20	.07	10.5	7.1	5.3	4.3	2.8	2.2
	25	.08	11.8	7.8	5.9	4.7	3.1	2.4
	30	.08	12.9	8.6	6.4	5.1	3.4	2.6
	40	.10	14.9	10.0	7.4	6.0	4.0	3.0
	50	.11	16.7	11.2	8.3	6.7	4.5	3.4
80015 9.7 GPA (100 MESH)	20	.11	15.7	10.5	7.8	6.3	4.3	3.2
	25	.12	17.5	11.7	8.8	7.1	4.7	3.6
	30	.13	19.2	12.9	9.7	7.7	5.2	3.9
	40	.15	22	14.9	11.1	8.9	6.0	4.5
	50	.17	25	16.7	12.4	10.0	6.7	5.0
8002 12.9 GPA (80 MESH)	20	.14	21	14.0	10.5	8.4	5.6	4.2
	25	.16	23	15.7	11.8	9.4	6.3	4.7
	30	.17	26	17.2	12.9	10.3	6.9	5.2
	40	.20	30	20	14.9	11.8	7.9	5.9
	50	.23	33	22	16.5	13.2	8.8	6.6
8003 19 GPA (60 MESH)	20	.21	32	21	15.7	12.6	8.4	6.3
	25	.24	35	23	17.4	14.1	9.4	7.1
	30	.26	38	26	19	15.4	10.3	7.7
	40	.30	45	30	22	17.8	11.8	8.9
	50	.34	50	33	25	20	13.2	10.0
8004 26 GPA (50 MESH)	20	.28	43	28	21	16.8	11.2	8.4
	25	.32	47	31	24	18.7	12.5	9.4
	30	.35	51	34	26	21	13.7	10.3
	40	.40	59	40	30	24	15.8	11.9
	50	.45	66	44	33	27	17.7	13.3
8005 32 GPA (40 MESH)	20	.35	53	35	26	21	14.0	10.5
	25	.40	59	39	29	23	15.7	11.7
	30	.43	64	43	32	26	17.2	12.9
	40	.50	74	49	37	30	19.8	14.9
	50	.56	83	55	42	33	22	16.6
8006 39 GPA (30 MESH)	20	.42	63	42	31	25	16.9	12.6
	25	.47	70	47	35	28	18.7	14.1
	30	.52	77	52	39	31	21	15.8
	40	.60	89	59	45	36	24	17.8
	50	.67	100	66	50	40	27	20
8008 52 GPA (20 MESH)	20	.56	84	56	42	34	22	17
	25	.63	94	63	47	37	25	19
	30	.69	103	69	52	41	27	21
	40	.80	119	79	59	48	32	24
	50	.89	132	89	66	53	36	27
8010 64 GPA	20	.70	105	70	53	42	28	21
	25	.78	117	78	59	47	31	24
	30	.86	129	86	64	51	34	26
	40	1.00	148	99	74	59	40	30
	50	1.11	165	111	83	66	44	33
8015 87 GPA	20	.83	122	83	61	49	33	25
	25	1.06	157	106	79	63	42	32
	30	1.23	176	117	88	71	47	35
	40	1.30	193	129	97	77	52	39
	50	1.50	222	148	111	89	59	45
8020 128 GPA	20	1.67	248	165	124	100	67	50
	25	1.83	272	181	136	108	73	56
	30	2.00	300	200	150	120	80	60
	40	2.20	330	220	165	132	88	66
	50	2.45	364	242	182	146	97	73